

Editorial

Adequate Texts and Equipment in High Schools

During the period of retrenchment, boards of education have felt it necessary to suspend temporarily those services which could be spared with least immediate damage. Since the default of interest payments on bonds and short-term loans was illegal unless the school district were bankrupt, and since most boards of education honestly desired to maintain teaching services and teachers' salaries as far as possible, the first savings were generally limited to new capital outlays, repairs, textbooks, supplies, and equipment. The decision to postpone such expenditures, while of doubtful validity for society as a whole, was surely justifiable for any one school district.

Postponements are not savings, however, unless the policies of boards of education in these matters had previously been extravagant. Such extravagance has been so rare as to have been almost nonexistent.

Buildings, equipment, and texts have now, after three or more years of postponed expenditures, suffered severely from continued usage with inadequate repairs and replacements, as might have been anticipated. Alert administrators are prepared with inventories and objective statements of needs.

The buoyancy and optimism with which the public is now facing the future assures a more friendly reception for requisitions than has been possible during the panicky years through which we have just passed. The willingness of boards of education to begin a policy of replacements and maintenance

to overcome the deteriorations caused by the publicly demanded "economy measures" is made probable both because of the obviousness of the need (if concrete evidence is furnished) and because the necessary money expenditure for mere upkeep and replacements is so very slight as compared with the total school budget; it seldom runs over three per cent per annum.

There are needs for new materials in the social studies, in English literature, in science, and in art and music that go far beyond those implied in the arguments for replacements. The *Zeitgeist*, reflecting the spirits of a "Century of Progress," national planning and recovery acts, international conferences, technocracy, new music and architecture, housing projects, already characterizes great numbers of alert citizens. During the months that lie ahead these patrons of our schools may become acquainted and shocked with the utterly futile pabulum of inert "history," literature, science, and the rest which typifies our moribund secondary-school instruction. Once aroused they may be inspired to demand revolutionary changes in the character of texts and reference and library books and equipments for visual and other aids. Administrators should be studying the status of this potentially powerful spirit in their communities and be ready to foster it and give it opportunities for constructive expression.

Meantime, publishers and equipment makers, instead of ballyhooing old and outworn wares, should be adventuring into fields which are becoming familiar to the minori-

ties which read independent journals and significant books regarding history, science, economics, art, music, and the rest. For there lies a market quite as rich as the ones that are being lost to formal geography, history, grammar, mathematics, physics, music, art, and "types of literature." Justifiable expenditures will find generous support as surely as texts and materials are made available and called to the attention of those people who look forward to an intelligently conceived and operated world.

P. W. L. C.

Implications of the New Deal for Schools

There are wolves at many doors today, tall hungry wolves with dagger fangs. They are the figurative ones—hunger, cold, sickness, despair—not the tawny wolves the homesteaders fought. The wilderness of trees was cleared and the tawny wolves retreated; but the wilderness of social enigmas has grown up all about us, denser than pines, tougher than oaks. Out of it come prowling torch-eye monsters, gaunt gray menaces that are not scared away by Peter Pan's invention against wolves.

Some say our doorstep wolves are robot wolves—their fangs are steel. They say the wilderness that overruns us now is one of grim machines. They grow up over night, like tropical trees in a sailor's story, and they bear on all their branches a plethora of fruit.

The fruit ripens and the branches bend with it. But in this nightmare world there are too many wretched souls condemned like Tantalus—they are devoured inside by hunger, but they cannot reach the fruit. When they reach out, the branches draw away and leave them empty handed, burning raw with hunger. And then there are the wolves.

If this is a dream we are dreaming, it is time we awakened. Some people think it is a dream, a nightmare of hunger and misery where there is plenty. It will dissolve, they say, and we shall breathe a deep sigh

and be glad it is over and never was real.

But the nightmare is real. It is made up not of dream stuff but of rock-hard realities. It is made up of tall elevators filled with last year's grain harvest, and of long queues of haggard men waiting for a handout of bread. It is made up of the bright steel of plowshares turning under rows of cotton, and of skinny children dressed in flour-sack pinafores.

Unless we have the heart to believe that this nightmare can be resolved we cannot believe in ourselves, or God, or anything. When it is resolved, by sweat and brains, by hard working and clear thinking, by hard, calloused hands, and hearts of just the other kind—we shall be out of this nightmare wilderness, safe from its varmints, and free to be dreaming a pleasanter dream.

There will be better days, we believe—not "pie in the sky," but pie à la mode on Hester Street and thick beefsteak in the mining towns, and garden apartments with cross ventilation, and cottages where there are tar-paper shanties. Why not, while we have all these things in the raw—pie and apartments—and can build on the vision that is our richest heritage: democratic America transcendent!

And guidance—what is its part in resolving the nightmare? What can be its share in reviving the dream and building new dreams? Who will have the courage to define guidance and plan it in words not borrowed from last year's textbooks, but words that are full of the rhythm of a dignified far-reaching purpose? How shall we move? What is the gambit that leads to a certain checkmate in this dangerous game we have chosen to play with the odds all against us?

Whatever guidance is, it is something else than what it was last year or last decade. The guidance of youth is as old as youth—as old as the children who lived in caves and went with their fathers to hunt saber-toothed tigers. But guidance in cave days was one thing, and a decade ago it was another thing, and now it is surely something else.

Guidance, some say, is adjusting youths

and keeping them adjusted. But this could mean—and often does—adjusting a bright youth to a stupid program, squeezing him into a narrow corner—cooping him up, clipping his wings. It may mean adjusting youths so well that they will be content and complacent no matter how bad a world they take over. And who will insist that advisers are something more than human? Have they sometimes used their place for confirming social distinctions? Who would dig the ditches if they allowed us all to improve our minds by reading the humanities?

Is guidance a cribbage game played by an expert, a game with young pegs to be plugged into snug holes? In other days, perhaps—in the days of the Great Prosperity—it was enough to sort the pegs and find them holes—round pegs for round holes, square holes for square pegs. Yet there were always some not round nor square, but somewhere in between; and some were of outlandish forms and sizes. And then, with all the rudeness and perversity of Wonderland croquet, the pegs did not stay put. The holes, too, acted up, changed size, or shrank up altogether, so that now there are too many pegs and never holes enough.

We have made laws that children must not work—the children did not matter, but there were not jobs enough. There is no work for boys and girls. Machine power replaces muscles everywhere. Fingers of steel and selenium cells do better work than the nimblest hands and brightest eyes. In our own times we shall be using less and less of brawn. Soon we shall have work for only the prime, the best of the men from twenty-five to forty-five; and those who work will do their work in half a day—four hours or less—watching dials, turning valves, drawing throttles, holding the reins of power equal to millions of horses. Fewer and fewer will work to produce and distribute an abundance of food and clothes and all the other material goods we can use.

Should we compose lamentations when men are set free? The Puritan God frowned on idleness, for the Puritans glorified what they had most of—back-breaking toil on the

granite farms. And work was exalted into a cardinal virtue, so that whoever was idle was evil, and a man's merit was read in the blisters he had and the cricks in his back. In New England mill towns the virtuous owners freely allowed little children the right to acquire much virtue (and a few coppers a day) by employing their hands at the looms and the jennies. When immigrants came to the new "Promised Land," they too were allowed a large share of the virtue and money enough for spaghetti.

Today, because there is not work enough to go around, we are forced to look for new virtues. We are learning the value of life. It lies not in abasing the flesh but exalting the mind and releasing the spirit. Work cannot be the end of life; and keeping alive is not the end. When the chromium wolves are driven away and there is abundance and security for every one, and something more, then guidance must not be a game of finding round holes for round pegs.

But one today may be worth ten tomorrows. The dead past does not die; and it may be true that the future never is born, but both are alive in the tick of the clock, the instant we know as the present. Now, which shall we serve? To which shall we tie? If old men grow young and fruit turns into its blossoms, our bond is with the past. But if children still grow up, we owe our debt to the future. The guidance of youth is already beginning to take on a luster reflected from glories which we, like the prophet, can see only dimly from our far side of the river.

J. C. D.

The Crisis in Secondary Education

A rude shock has come to American secondary education. Most of us seem stupefied by the vicious attacks that confront our schools. Many others scold and plead for support on the terms that we formerly enjoyed. Few of us seem to realize that we face a crisis in education that calls for a revolutionary program if we are to appeal successfully to vigorous and enlightened members of our communities.

The real tragedy is far more sinister than financial stringency, unpaid teachers, and understaffed faculties. More serious is the drive on the part of fascist bankers and industrialists to force a reversion to the selective academic curriculum of the nineteenth century and the abandonment of universal liberal education. Most serious is the social lag of the school as we schoolmen have organized it with its socially ignorant and indifferent subject specialists and with administrators who are timid, fearful, and inept in making needed changes in its curriculum and in its institutional life.

Worst of all, our schools do not now arouse the enthusiasm of enlightened citizens. We are deserted by our happiness boys—Rotarians, chambers of commerce, college men's and women's clubs. We have recruited no strength from the sponsors of forums, from liberal and radical groups, and from the sponsors of the newly founded co-operative societies. Here lie the true tragedy and crisis.

What to do? We must take our cue from the mental and emotional complex resulting from the depression and the New Deal. We must ourselves become familiar with the causes of our present state and of society's confoundment. We must examine critically both the character and the probable effect of the programs included in the National Recovery Act. Finally, we must prepare ourselves to understand the confusion—perhaps the chaos—which will surely develop when the anarchic forces of laissez-faire economy strive to reassert themselves six months or two years hence.

Our first step, then, involves active membership in or the formation of study groups that will strive to understand the social system of which we and our schools are parts. Thousands of such study groups and forums have developed throughout the country during the past two years. In Des Moines, Iowa,¹ indeed, the public-school department definitely sponsors public forums which study controversial economic questions. In other places, public-school buildings are used for

such meetings.² But in very few places are high-school administrators or teachers active members of any of these groups.

Our second step is the encouragement among our fellow teachers of a sincere study of proposed and projected "roads to freedom" as set forth by Russell, Wells, Chase, Keynes, Salter, Thomas, Cole, Soule, Tugwell, and other forward-looking philosophers and scientists. At present it is impossible to arouse enthusiastic support among radical thinkers for the reemployment of high-school teachers whom they know to be social ignoramuses. In instituting its "New Deal" Russia was obliged to make pupils responsible for their teachers for *fifteen years* because teachers were so obsessed with the defunct ideology. Not until 1932 did teachers reach a point where they could be trusted with leadership in their own classrooms.

Our third step is the organization of lay support for a school characterized by a creative environment, a fearless inquiry into controversial questions of politics and economics, and an advisory relationship of teachers to pupils to replace traditional schoolmastering.

Our fourth step is the fostering of support for such clearly approvable community undertakings as the Tennessee basin project of the national program for economic recovery, for the elimination of child labor, for sanitary labor conditions, for better housing conditions, for richer recreational opportunities, for international understandings, for well-conceived barter plans, and for similar worthy community experiments—interest in and support for governmental and other institutional efforts to realize adequate social living.

Our fifth step is the introduction of definite school recognitions of initiative and self-reliance and intelligent coöperation among pupils to replace the stultifying emphases on meaningless "scholarship" and stupid docility which make youths unfit for our industrialized society.

Our sixth step is the statement of a credo for such a school as we and our most progres-

¹ See *School Life*, May 1933.

² See Constance Hook, "The Montclair Economics Council." *Progressive Education*, March 1933.

sive and aggressive colleagues approve for tomorrow. Let us translate our credo into a program and submit it to the local branch of the League of Women Voters, to those who attend public forums, to trade unions, to the editors of local papers, to influential citizens of insight and good will, and to legislators, State and national. We must not limit our appeal to the well-to-do; the underprivileged have chief concern in public schools.

Finally, let us demand Federal aid for the aspects of the school's program which supplement and support the national government's own policies for assuming itself an understanding electorate. The employment of unemployed teachers to enliven spiritually and then to enlighten mentally youths and adults is certainly as justifiable a use of Fed-

eral monies as are reforestation, bridge and road building, construction of houses and public buildings, and the rest. Moreover, such a use of Federal monies is clearly legal under the terms of the National Recovery Act. By such means, we shall soon gain a public support among the rapidly increasing numbers of enlightened and aggressive youths and adults of our communities that will offset and more than replace the lost enthusiasm of conservative, fearful, and reactionary citizens. We shall earn such support and confidence of forward-looking people, however, only by creating schools that revive and justify their faith in us as enlightened leaders and in our educational goals and procedures as adequate means for realizing the "New Deal."

P. W. L. C.

The Interpretation of Guidance

Leonard V. Koos

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Professor Koos analyzes in this article some of the mistaken conceptions of guidance in use in secondary schools and proposes a new concept both possible of attainment and adequate in scope for the needs of the individual pupil. Until administrative officers in secondary schools refine their concepts of guidance along the lines indicated by Professor Koos, their programs of guidance will suffer from misdirection and fail to merit the respect of pupils, teachers, and parents.*

W. C. R.

IN GUIDANCE, as in many other fields of education, mistaken concepts result in mistaken programs of guidance activity. In fact, the biggest obstacles to a reasonable development of programs of guidance appear to be many of the current working conceptions of what is comprehended by this new and timely function of the secondary school.

The defects of concept are in two directions. One of these is to associate guidance with some single aspect of life, rather than with the whole of it. Historically, the first of these aspects to be recognized in guidance programs was vocation, and much was made of vocational guidance in the early years of the guidance movement. Certainly, guidance with respect to vocation is important, but it is a niggardly conception to think of guidance only in connection with occupational life. More recently, instances have emerged of programs of guidance restricted to other partial aspects of complete living, such as health or recreation.

The other direction of defect is in expanding the concept and identifying it with the whole process of education. In this expansion the term guidance is made synonymous with education and substituted for processes like teaching, curriculum making, vocational education, and the extracurriculum. Although guidance should be concerned with all phases of life, this is very different from expanding the concept to include all that we are doing in the education of youth.

An acceptable concept of guidance¹ has two main phases: (1) the distributive and (2) the adjustive. In discharging the former phase, we aim to distribute youth as effectively as possible to educational and vocational opportunities, that is, to subjects (or courses), curricula, extracurricular activities (which may be thought of as expansions of the curriculum), schools, higher institutions, and vocations. In the second phase we help the individual to make the optimal adjustment to educational and vocational situations. Hutson has put it well where he says, "Adjustment pertains to those activities by which the school removes impediments to the pupil's optimum progress in educational and vocational situations or prevents the origin of such impediments."² The two phases of distribution and adjustment are complementary. They also bear reciprocal relations to each other, as when a recommended change of subjects in a pupil's program dispels a maladjustment or when stimulation of the pupil to better performance (through adjustive efforts of guidance workers) in a particular subject field removes an obstacle to the pupil's admission to a particular curriculum.

A further component of the concept of guidance should be mentioned; namely, its monitory character. Guidance and arbitrary compulsion are incompatible. Guidance implies counsel, and the only compulsion possible in counsel is the coercion of judgment by pertinent facts that point the way to a proper decision. For example, guidance should aid the pupil in making selections from the variable subjects in a program of studies; it will not designate which of the

¹ The statement of concept here made is based on Chapter I in *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, by Leonard V. Koos and Grayson N. Kefauver (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932), 640 pages.

² Percival W. Hutson, "Selected References on Guidance," *School Review*, September 1933, p. 536.

variables he must take. A great deal could be made in this discussion of the consonance of the spirit of guidance and of democracy.

Portions of the preceding discussion make the point that although guidance is not to be identified with the whole of the educative process, it is, nevertheless, concerned with all aspects of life. Various classifications of life's activities are possible and have been proposed. A relatively simple one distributes these activities to four main categories; namely, the vocational, civic-social-moral, recreational, and health. Accepting this four-way classification of life's concerns, Kefauver and Hand discuss the kinds of guidance required.⁸ They find in these four main aspects of life the four main aims of secondary education. They say further,

The introduction of a guidance program does not add new ultimate objectives to the secondary school. It provides a service supplementary to the training activities which should affect favorably the present and future efficiency of students in their social, recreational, health, and vocational pursuits. That is, students from schools with a functional program of guidance should be better citizens, should be more healthy, should use their leisure time to better advantage, and should be more efficient vocationally. In accomplishing these ultimate objectives by the total program of the school, certain contributions are claimed for the guidance element.

This statement by these authors is followed by a clarifying discussion of the rôle of guidance towards the attainment by pupils of each of these four aims of secondary education. By way of generous illustration, we quote the paragraphs dealing with vocational and recreational guidance.

Just what is it that guidance should contribute to education for social, health, recreational, and vocational activities? There is greater agreement on the answer to this question with respect to vocational guidance than with respect to the other types. A distinction has been made between vocational guidance and vocational training. Vocational guidance has to do with choosing an occupational objective, choosing subjects, curricula, or schools preparatory for that objective, choosing a job when leaving school, and some supervision of vocational activities during initial employment. Vocational

guidance is directly concerned neither with determining the content of the vocational courses nor with methods of teaching used in these courses, although the information gained by guidance workers proves valuable to supervisors and teachers of vocational subjects. The service of guidance is not in training but (1) in qualifying students for the choices of vocation and vocational courses, and (2) in providing special assistance towards optimum achievement and adjustment in vocational courses and later in vocational activities. Vocational guidance causes students to recognize the importance of giving attention to preparation for a life career, helps them to decide upon that career and the necessary preparation for it, to locate in an occupation, and to attain an optimum success in the vocational courses and in the vocation. . . .

Recreational guidance will interpret to students the importance of the proper use of their leisure time and the need of preparing themselves for its wise use. It will also inform them about subjects and activities having possible connection with this objective and how they might discover recreational interests. It will counsel with them in the choice of these courses and activities. The content of these courses and activities is not guidance, however, but training chosen by the student under guidance. Furthermore, recreational guidance will give special aid in realizing optimum success and adjustment in these courses and activities.

The statements of these writers concerning social guidance and health guidance are analogous to those just quoted.

ILLEGITIMATE EXTENSION OF THE CONCEPT

Many illegitimate extensions of an acceptable concept of guidance are extant and presumably determining programs of guidance in the schools. We can take time to cite at length only a single illustration, the statement of the "objectives of guidance" proposed in a recently published outline of a guidance program for grades seven to twelve, inclusive.

1. To develop the ability to be a helpful member of a family. (Consisting in sharing responsibilities and privileges.)
2. To develop the ability to benefit from the experience of others and to improve upon them so that others may benefit from us. (Consisting in learning to read, write, figure, and think.)
3. To develop the ability to perform our obligations as helpful neighbors and intelligent citizens. (Consisting of thorough understanding and appreciation of the ideals of citizenship and neighborliness.)

⁸ Grayson N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand, "Objectives of Guidance in Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, February 1933, pp. 380-385.

4. To develop the ability to form right habits of conduct based on worthy principles and ideals. (Consisting of honesty, loyalty, justice, reverence, etc.)

5. To develop the ability to build up and conserve our health and to utilize our free time wholesomely. (Consisting of an appreciation of health laws, healthful exercise, good music, art, literature, etc.)

6. To develop the ability to choose the right vocation which will enable us to express ourselves fully, render the best service to others, and earn a comfortable living. (Consisting of right motives, knowledge of occupation, and self.)⁴

This quotation represents a clear case of almost losing sight of guidance proper and identifying it with all education. The only one of these objectives at all concerned with the distributive phase of guidance is the sixth, that relates to guidance concerning vocation. The remainder, cast in terms of developing abilities along various lines, are nothing more than restatements of desirable objectives of the training program and appear to have no more to do with the adjustment phase of guidance than any other well-formulated statement of the objectives of education.

In the article by Kefauver and Hand from which quotation has already been made the authors refer to other instances of inflation of the concept of guidance which they encountered in their investigation of guidance programs. They say that in some schools the program of extracurricular activities, including pupil participation in school control, is considered to be guidance. In other schools, programs of individual instruction or of curriculum construction are referred to as guidance. Other schools regard their informal discussions of ethical problems, a popular form of character training, as guidance. These writers say that they would be among the first to champion the importance of these forms of instruction, but they express the fear that when the concept of guidance is extended to include such educational activities, the special services in guidance in the stricter sense are likely to be displaced.

⁴ *Tentative Outline for a Guidance Program for Grades Seven to Twelve, Miami County, Ohio* (Troy, Ohio: Miami County Board of Education, 1931), p. 8. Prepared by the Miami County Vocational Guidance Association (Maurice J. Neuberg and D. H. Sellers, supervisors and editors).

GUIDANCE PROGRAM VS. CONCEPT

It goes without saying that the program of guidance carried on in a school should be controlled by the concept of guidance that is entertained by those in charge. The programs of guidance found in operation in secondary schools are, if anything, even more diverse than the concepts, and a great host of different practices will be encountered by any one who undertakes to investigate these programs. The activities in guidance actually found to be carried on that are in line with the concept put forward above fall naturally into four main groups.⁵ (1) The first of these includes activities aimed to inform pupils concerning educational and vocational opportunities. (2) The second large group includes activities intended to secure information concerning pupils. (3) Having informed the pupils and secured information concerning them, we are in a position to guide them as individuals: All complete programs of guidance must eventuate in the individual. (4) Finally, the program of guidance is hardly a program until it is organized by assigning responsibility for carrying it forward to part-time or full-time guidance functionaries in the school.

1. Among the chief means being used in secondary schools to inform pupils concerning educational and vocational opportunities are the publications of the school, such as the printed or mimeographed programs of studies, the handbook, and guidance issues of the school paper; a flexible organization of the program of studies that makes possible pupil contacts with a variety of subject fields; the course in occupations aiming at giving information concerning the world's work; and exploratory and general courses. A partial list of other means sometimes used to supplement these chief agencies of information are visits to and observation of work in occupations, visits of classes to higher schools, talks to pupils in lower schools, talks on occupations by their representatives, information through extracurricular activities, and information through part-time employment.

⁵ The present classification is that followed in *Parts I-IV* in Leonard V. Koos and Grayson N. Kefauver, *op. cit.*

2. The chief sources of information concerning pupils are the pupils themselves, school records, and measurement. Kinds of information pupils can be expected to supply are their educational plans, choice of curricula, intention to finish high school, intention to attend college or university, choice of occupations, and socio-economic and ethnic status of parents. Certain types of information concerning home conditions will need to be ascertained through other channels. The kinds of school records most useful are measures of scholarship, such as scholastic records in lower schools, participation in the extracurriculum, and aptitude as shown in exploratory courses. Measurements found most useful are results of intelligence tests, achievement tests, and prognostic tests, and ratings on personal traits.

3. The procedures mainly useful in guiding the individual pupil are the case method and the interview. In an adequate program of guidance every pupil in the school becomes a case study. To make case studies possible the school must keep cumulative and permanent records, not only of scholarship but of information in at least the variety suggested by the kinds of information concerning pupils that have already been mentioned.

4. A diversity of functionaries in guidance are to be found in secondary schools. Among them are deans of girls and of boys, homeroom advisers, advisers who include large proportions of teaching staffs in individual schools, full-time or part-time counselors in whom the activities in guidance are concentrated in individual schools, guidance committees, and visiting teachers. Principals render types of services in guidance dependent largely on the size of enrollment of the high school. Classroom teachers bear an important relationship to the guidance program. With such a diversity of functionaries almost limitless combinations of guidance functionaries are possible and can be found in any large number of schools. Besides all the possibilities of variation in combinations

are the patterns of organization of guidance for school systems. In the National Survey of Secondary Education these were investigated by Professor Reavis, who identified at least four main patterns of organization.

It now seems certain that effective guidance programs are attainable with divergent combinations of functionaries and different patterns of organization. The important consideration appears to be to make sure that, whatever the combination or pattern, the full scope of activity called for by a reasonable concept of guidance be included. Let us illustrate. Deans of girls are found to deal chiefly with problems of social conduct of girls and with the supervision of the extracurriculum. Again, homeroom advisers are concerned chiefly with attendance, discipline, guidance concerning quality of work, and sponsoring certain social-integrative activities. No principal whose organization for guidance includes only a dean of girls and homeroom advisers whose activities are thus restricted should beguile himself into the belief that these activities are of a scope that corresponds with that called for by the reasonable concept of guidance. He will do well from time to time to check the activities of his guidance functionaries against the concept and revise the organization to compensate for inadequacies found.

Even the partial list of activities that has been given indicates that there is no lack of things to do within such a concept of guidance as has been proposed. The difficulty in these trying days is to find the resources of money and the time for the staff to do them. The rapid development in very recent years of programs of guidance under a variety of arrangements in many secondary schools is proof that school heads will find a way. They are urged to it by the recent acceleration in the popularization of secondary education that for the country as a whole has brought more than half of all the children of appropriate ages under the influence of the secondary school.

Work of the Class Counselor

Richard D. Allen

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Allen presents a careful analysis of the activities of counselors in junior high schools. The plan described is in successful operation in the junior high schools of Providence, Rhode Island, under Dr. Allen's supervision.*

W. C. R.

ORGANIZED guidance has been generally stressed as an articulating element in the curriculum and program of the school. It is as necessary to plan for articulation as for any other desirable objective in education. The need has become increasingly clear as a result of the remarkable growth in the enrollment in the secondary schools and the increasingly complex organization of the curriculum into departments of instruction.

Most of the larger schools are organized not only by departments but also in semianual, promotion periods. Thus, pupils may have a different teacher for each subject and also may change teachers in each subject each term unless care is taken in schedule making to avoid unnecessary pupil-teacher turnover. The wastes involved in such turnover are considerable if teachers are to teach pupils rather than subjects, for much of the time of the teacher who meets a new class must be spent in acquainting himself, not only with the different personalities involved, but also with the differences in subject achievements and interests of the pupils. With one hundred and fifty to two hundred new pupils each term, the task becomes almost insuperable from the point of view of the classroom teacher, and the changes become very confusing to the pupils.

In a large junior high school the pupil comes in contact with twelve or thirteen different teachers each week. It is possible for him to change practically all of these teachers each term. It is necessary that he should change some of them, and it is probably unwise for him to retain all of them. Investigation in the Providence schools has

shown that on the average approximately nine out of thirteen teachers are changed, even when counselors are consciously attempting to prevent unnecessary changes in the continuous or cumulative subjects, such as English, mathematics, and foreign languages. In many schools accurate figures of pupil-teacher turnover are not available. In fact, no one knows how much of this turnover is desirable and how much should be avoided. In many school systems no one is even studying the problem in spite of its importance from the point of view of economy and efficiency.

In the midst of this turnover, the work of the class counselor becomes an important articulating element within the junior high school. Pupils retain the same counselor for the entire three years, and he is responsible for certain special functions with this same group of pupils throughout the entire three-year course. The actual task, however, includes many apparently different kinds of functions, the combination and integration of which result in the development of a strong and effective program of articulation within the school.

But articulation within the junior high school is only a part of the problem. There must also be articulation with the elementary schools on the one hand and with the senior high schools on the other. In addition there must also be articulation between school and work for those who leave school to enter employment. These problems have not received much consideration from educators in the past, but they are receiving considerably more attention at the present time by students of the educational process.

In fact, the work of the counselor is much more than a three-year task for it includes contacts with oncoming classes that are still in the elementary schools, with the follow-up studies of junior-high-school graduates who

ANALYSIS OF THE WORK OF THE CLASS COUNSELOR IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

WORK OF THE 7B-A COUNSELORS WITH -	WORK OF THE 8B-A COUNSELORS WITH -	WORK OF THE 9B-A COUNSELORS WITH -
<p>THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS -</p> <p>A. VISITS ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS TO DISCUSS 7TH GRADE SPECIAL CASES WITH THE PRINCIPALS.</p> <p>B. INSPECTS GUIDANCE & TEST RECORD CARDS & PERSONNEL CHARTS OF THE 4TH GRADE TO DISCOVER & PREVENT POSSIBLE MAL-ADJUSTMENTS.</p>	<p>THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS -</p> <p>A. VISITS ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS TO DISCUSS 8TH GRADE SPECIAL CASES WITH THE PRINCIPALS.</p> <p>B. INSPECTS GUIDANCE & TEST RECORD CARDS & PERSONNEL CHARTS OF THE 5TH GRADE TO DISCOVER & PREVENT POSSIBLE MAL-ADJUSTMENTS.</p>	<p>THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS -</p> <p>A. GIVES GROUP PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS TO 6As.</p> <p>B. INSPECTS EDUCATIONAL TEST RECORDS.</p> <p>C. TRANSFERS IMPORTANT DATA TO JUNIOR H.S. RECORD SHEETS.</p> <p>D. PROVIDES FOR 6A VISITS TO JUNIOR H.S.</p>
<p>CONTACTS WITH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS</p> <p>THE 7B-A GROUP OF PUPILS -</p> <p>I. STUDIES ELEMENTARY RECORDS & ENTERS IMPORTANT DATA ON JR. H.S. RECORD SHEETS.</p> <p>MAKES TENTATIVE GROUP ADJUSTMENTS THROUGH CLASSIFICATION BASED ON TEST RECORDS.</p> <p>MEASURES CLASSIFICATION WITH CLASS PERSONNEL CHARTS.</p> <p>II. INITIAL INTERVIEWS & INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENTS IN SPECIAL CASES.</p> <p>III. VOCATIONAL CIVICS CLASSES - AMERICAN CIVILIZATION - A BACKGROUND FOR OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES & PROBLEMS OF EVERYDAY LIVING.</p> <p>PARTICIPATES IN TRAINING CONFERENCE IN FIELDS OF GROUP GUIDANCE & EDUCATIONAL TESTS</p>	<p>THE 8B-A GROUP OF PUPILS -</p> <p>I. STUDIES INVENTORY & FINAL TEST RESULTS TO SELECT PUPILS IN NEED OF ADJUSTMENT.</p> <p>CHECKS PREVIOUS GROUP ADJUSTMENTS.</p> <p>MEASURES ADJUSTMENTS WITH PERSONNEL CHART - 8B GRADE.</p> <p>ADJUSTMENTS THROUGH CHOICE OF ELECTIVES.</p> <p>BRINGS INDIVIDUAL RECORD SHEETS UP-TO-DATE</p> <p>II. INTERVIEWS PUPILS TO CHECK PLANS, ADJUSTMENTS, & ELECTIVE CHOICES.</p> <p>III. GENERAL STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL FIELDS & DETAILED STUDY OF ONE OCCUPATION.</p> <p>PARTICIPATES IN TRAINING CONFERENCE IN FIELDS OF PLACEMENT, FOLLOW-UP, & ATTENDANCE, DISCIPLINE, HOME VISITS</p>	<p>THE 9B-A GROUP OF PUPILS -</p> <p>I. GIVES GROUP PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS TO 9As.</p> <p>ISSUES TRANSFERS TO OTHER SCHOOLS.</p> <p>PREPARES RECORD SHEETS FOR SENIOR H.S. COUNSELORS.</p> <p>II. INTERVIEWS TO CHECK -</p> <p>SENIOR H.S. PLANS, ADJUSTMENTS, CHOICES OF ELECTIVES, & CAREERS.</p> <p>INTERVIEWS PUPILS LEAVING SCHOOL.</p> <p>III. EDUCATIONAL & VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN THE COMMUNITY - CAREER BOOK PROJECT.</p> <p>PARTICIPATES IN TRAINING CONFERENCE IN FIELDS OF OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES, & GUIDANCE CLINIC, MENTAL HYGIENE.</p>
<p>CONTACTS WITH PUPILS AFTER LEAVING JR.H.S.</p> <p>THE 10B-A CLASS -</p> <p>MAKES 1 YR. FOLLOW-UP STUDY WITH 10A COUNSELORS TO DISCOVER, DROP OUTS, FAILURES & SUCCESSSES, ELECTIVES CHOSEN, & EMPLOYMENT.</p> <p>CONTINUES THE STUDY AMONG DROP OUTS TO DISCOVER PROBLEMS IN EMPLOYMENT, & CONTINUATION - EVENING - PART TIME EDUCATION.</p>	<p>THE 11B-A CLASS -</p> <p>MAKES 2 YR. FOLLOW-UP STUDY WITH 11A COUNSELORS TO DISCOVER, DROP OUTS, FAILURES & SUCCESSSES, ELECTIVES CHOSEN, & EMPLOYMENT.</p> <p>CONTINUES THE STUDY AMONG DROP OUTS TO DISCOVER PROBLEMS IN EMPLOYMENT, & CONTINUATION - EVENING - PART TIME EDUCATION.</p> <p>MAKES 3 YR. FOLLOW-UP STUDY WITH 12A COUNSELORS TO DISCOVER -</p> <p>1. DROP OUTS, FAILURES & SUCCESSSES, CHANGED PLANS</p> <p>2. EMPLOYMENT RECORDS & OPPORTUNITIES.</p> <p>3. SUGGESTIONS FOR JR. H.S. IMPROVEMENTS.</p> <p>4. PART TIME & EVENING SCHOOL OPPORTUNITIES.</p>	<p>THE 12B-A CLASS -</p> <p>MAKES 3 YR. FOLLOW-UP STUDY WITH 12A COUNSELORS TO DISCOVER -</p> <p>1. DROP OUTS, FAILURES & SUCCESSSES, CHANGED PLANS</p> <p>2. EMPLOYMENT RECORDS & OPPORTUNITIES.</p> <p>3. SUGGESTIONS FOR JR. H.S. IMPROVEMENTS.</p> <p>4. PART TIME & EVENING SCHOOL OPPORTUNITIES.</p> <p>NUMBER OF PUPILS LEAVING JUNIOR HIGH</p>

NUMBER OF PUPILS
LEAVING JUNIOR HIGH

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have passed on into the senior high school, and with pupils who have left school to enter employment. The follow-up of drop-outs is included in the latter study. It is really an undertaking of a seven-year, and possibly even of a nine-year, contact with the same individual. Such a statement, however, appears extreme and idealistic unless the actual program of the counselor is carefully analyzed.

To analyze a program so complex is not an easy task. Most people are accustomed to planning ahead for only a few days, or weeks, or months. A few teachers may plan their work for a term, or even for a year, but a *three-year program* is seldom attempted by any teacher or principal. Nevertheless, a carefully planned three-year program for the counselor is absolutely necessary, since the task is clearly continuous. To present upon a single page the picture of the many sides of the problem, as well as all the elements of continuity involved, the accompanying chart has been prepared with the assistance of Mr. Lester J. Schloerb, counselor in the Lane Technical School, Chicago.

The three vertical columns of the chart represent the three years of work in the program of the class counselor. The first column contains the actual tasks performed by the counselor in the seventh grade; the next, the tasks of the eighth grade; and the third, the tasks of the ninth grade.

Each of these columns, however, is divided laterally into four horizontal sections. The upper portion includes contacts with pupils who are still in the elementary schools. These are the fourth-, fifth-, or sixth-grade pupils who will later come under the supervision of the counselor. The central section shows the contacts of the counselor with the seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade pupils in the junior high school. It includes the three chief functions of the counselor which are indicated by the Roman numerals. The time devoted to each of these functions is indicated in the key at the bottom of the chart. The small box in this section of the chart indicates the training program for each year. The section at the

bottom of the chart indicates contacts which the counselor has with pupils after they have left the junior high schools.

While the vertical columns indicate the three-year task, it can be seen by the horizontal sections that the counselor makes contacts with elementary-school principals and pupils during the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades; carries on these pupils through the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades; and then follows up the same pupils in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. Such continuous contacts of teacher and pupils have never before been provided, except in the little country schoolhouse where the same teacher has carried the child from the first grade through his preparation for college. Moreover, the actual working out of the program presents no difficult problems. It is merely a matter of careful planning and organization.

In interpreting the chart, it is probably simplest to begin with the middle section that includes the important tasks of the counselor with pupils in his own grade. The Roman numeral indicates the first of the three functions of the counselor, personnel records and research or the study of individual differences and of the factors that condition success or proper adjustment. His first task is to study the elementary-school records of pupils in the entering class and to record important data on the record cards or record sheets. This is a necessary part of the task of getting acquainted with the entering pupils. As a result of such information the counselor is able to make group adjustments through classifications based upon the test record and guidance cards from the elementary schools. When this has been done the results should be measured by charting each group upon the class personnel chart. This throws into relief all pupils who cannot be satisfactorily adjusted alone by means of classification. Much of this work can be done during the last quarter of the term, before the pupils enter the junior high school, since the test record and guidance cards are sent to the junior high schools at the close of the

first quarter of the 6A grade. Thus begins a six-year study of individual differences and adjustments.

Section II indicates the second group of functions of the class counselor, individual counseling and adjustment, for which each counselor is given four or five hours each week of program time. As soon as the records are complete, the counselor makes a tentative arrangement of pupils in the order in which they are to be interviewed.

The first interview is naturally an initial interview. The purpose of this interview is to bring together all of the available facts about the pupil and to assemble these as a part of his personnel record. It also provides an opportunity to investigate any problems of school and home adjustment. As a result of these interviews, individual adjustments will be made in special cases and important factors will be checked for further reference. Sufficient time is provided for an individual interview with every pupil during each term. Such interviews, however, are not repetitions. There is a definite progression from one interview to the next. This will be indicated in the descriptions of the work of the counselor in the succeeding grades.

Section III indicates the orientation or group-guidance functions. The major part of the counselor's program of instruction is in the field of vocational civics. He meets each section of his grade twice each week in this course. The purpose of the civics curriculum in the seventh grade is the laying of a background for the study of occupations and of problems of everyday living in the later grades. During this grade the counselor participates in the training conference that has as its major activity the study of the problems of the group-guidance curriculum, the guidance library, and the use of educational tests in problems of guidance and adjustment.

While the counselor is carrying on these activities with the pupils in the seventh grade, he also makes a follow-up study in coöperation with the 10A counselors in the

senior high schools, through which he discovers pupils who have left school, those who have failed or found difficulty in carrying on the program which they had planned in the junior high school, pupils who have been successful in their plans, and the further electives which pupils have chosen. A list of pupils who have left school to enter employment is also secured. It is only by knowing the progress of pupils beyond the junior-high-school grades that the counselor can measure the effectiveness of the plans which these pupils have made under his direction in the junior high school. The proportion of failures provides a check upon the wisdom of previous elective choices; the proportion of pupils who have left school provides an indication of the emphasis which should be placed, in the group-guidance course, upon problems of choice of immediate employment and training.

Such information is necessary for the progressive and continuous improvement of the guidance program. While the follow-up studies of graduates are being carried out, the counselor also follows up pupils who have left during their junior-high-school course or have failed to enter the senior high school. This is not a difficult problem. The home visitor in the attendance department visits the place of employment of every child who leaves school to go to work and a report is sent to the junior-high-school counselor. The files of the employment-certificate office provide the counselor with a continuous record of employment until the age for employment certificates has passed. Letters from the counselor to former pupils usually bring a good response if careful preparation has been made beforehand so that each pupil expects these letters, understands their purpose, and has appreciated the importance of coöperating for the improvement of the counseling service. These letters encourage pupils to attend evening school and stress the value of part-time education.

Meanwhile the counselor makes a friendly visit at the elementary school in the district from which the 7B pupils came. Much infor-

mation concerning problem cases can be obtained from the elementary-school principals, who are always glad to learn of the progress of their graduates and willing to cooperate in the further adjustment of their former pupils. Such visits should not be too frequent or time consuming. They do not imply supervisory authority, but friendly cooperation. Incidentally, the counselor may compliment the principal upon the excellent condition of the records which he has sent on to the junior high school or attention may be called to methods of improving the records. The task, however, is that of a friendly, good-will ambassador, rather than a person with supervisory authority. If the counselor is tactful in such contacts, the fourth-grade class will come through with much more usable records than its predecessors. The counselor may also show an interest in the class personnel charts of these pupils. Usually the principal is glad to show such charts and to discuss common problems.

These friendly contacts do much to promote articulation between elementary and junior high schools while the follow-up studies which the counselor carries on in cooperation with the counselors in the senior high schools also result in mutual understanding and cooperation in the upper level. Once a year, at least, the tenth- and seventh-grade counselors, the eleventh- and eighth-grade counselors, and the ninth- and twelfth-grade counselors meet to discuss problems of articulation. Such meetings are a regular part of the rotating plan for the training of counselors.

In the middle column of the chart, that shows the work of the counselor in the eighth grade, the same general plan prevails.

1. The counselor studies the standardized test results of pupils and, selecting those in need of adjustment, checks the effectiveness of previous group adjustments and makes readjustments; he also measures the adjustments made by charting the various sections of the grade on the personnel charts. In this grade further adjustments are made through choices of electives. There are no specialized

curricula in the junior high schools of Providence; each subject is elective under guidance. In this way the needs of each individual receive separate consideration. The counselor must also bring the cards or record sheets of pupils up-to-date, with test results, changes of address, and other facts that are frequently secured in a systematic way by means of mimeographed questionnaires.

2. An individual interview with each pupil is scheduled for each term. In the 8B grade the principal purpose of this interview is to check the progress made during the previous year, to note the changes in plans, the effectiveness of adjustments, and the obviously unwise choices of elective subjects. The 8B interview is an educational interview since it deals with elective choices, while the 8A interview is essentially a progress interview to measure the effects of elective choices and adjustments.

3. In the course in vocational civics, the pupils, under the instruction of the counselor, study the general occupational fields as classified in the census, and each pupil makes a detailed study of some particular occupation. These occupational units, however, are interspersed with case conferences and with self-measurement units designed to help pupils understand in objective terms the nature and extent of their own limitations, abilities, and interests. Meanwhile, all of the eighth-grade counselors participate in conferences in the fields of placement, follow-up, attendance, discipline, and home visiting as parts of their regular training program.

In the contacts with pupils who have left the junior high schools, the counselor makes a two-year follow-up study in cooperation with the 11A counselors to discover the pupils who have left school, to note the conspicuous failures and successes, and to observe the elective subjects chosen. Shifts of interests are very interesting for the counselor to study, since such information is helpful in assisting other pupils in the future to make elective choices more wisely. The counselor also ascertains which pupils have

found it necessary to leave school to enter employment, and whether or not such action on their part was in accordance with their previous plans or necessitated modification of such plans. Meanwhile, the counselor also studies the records of pupils who have dropped out of school to enter employment. He may thus familiarize himself with problems which pupils in the future must meet in these fields. Follow-up letters to pupils who have left school provide opportunities for the counselor to urge attendance in continuation school, evening school, or part-time classes.

The pattern of the work of the counselor in the ninth grade is somewhat similar to that of the previous grades, except that the individual items change somewhat according to changes in emphasis.

1. As a part of the work in personnel records and research, or the study of individual differences, the counselor gives group psychological tests to the 9A pupils. This is a part of the counselor's training program, since conferences of 9A counselors are in the field of occupational studies in the 9B grade) and of the guidance clinic, mental hygiene, and psychological tests in the 9A grade. The giving of the psychological tests is supervised by the assistant in the central office who is in charge of psychological testing. Under her direction the 9A counselors compare the I. Q.'s obtained in the 6A grade with those obtained in the 9A grade and discuss methods of improving the testing program. Counselors also issue transfers to other schools, having complete charge of all transfers between junior and senior high schools. In this work they prepare the record sheets or cards to be used by the senior-high-school counselors, as the junior-high-school counselors avail themselves of the guidance and test record cards of the elementary school for the study of pupils who are entering the seventh grade.

2. Each term the counselor has an individual interview with every pupil. The purpose of the interviews in the ninth grade is largely to check plans for the senior high schools and adjustments that must be made

in connection with such plans, and also to discuss the further choices of electives and of careers. In the ninth grade the individual interview becomes more of a vocational interview and an exit interview. Some pupils do not intend to enter high school. For these the purpose of the interview is largely to work out individual educational plans in evening and vocational schools.

3. In the vocational-civics course, the principal objective is the study of local educational and vocational opportunities. During the 9A grade each pupil prepares a career book that is in reality an intensive study of some particular occupation in which he has a special interest. This does not imply that the pupil has selected this particular career.

While the counselor is thus in contact with ninth-grade pupils, he is also carrying on a three-year follow-up study in coöperation with the 12A counselors. Through this study he discovers the pupils who have dropped out of school, those who have made conspicuous failures or successes, and those who have found it necessary to change their original plans. In the follow-up of pupils who have dropped out of school the counselor learns some of the occupational opportunities that are open to pupils who cannot complete the senior-high-school course. From both of these studies come many suggestions for improvements in the junior-high-school curriculum and in the guidance program. Again, these follow-up letters help the counselor to learn about pupils who are continuing their education in part-time and evening schools.

One of the problems in the organization of guidance in the secondary schools is that counselors must be selected largely from the teaching staff. Every source of contact between elementary and junior high schools, between junior and senior high schools, and between school and work helps to broaden the experience of the counselor and increase the effectiveness of his work.

The problems of articulation with elementary schools and senior high schools become acute in the program of the 9A counselor.

When pupils are being transferred to the senior high school, records must be brought up-to-date and forwarded and transfers effected. At the same time, however, the counselor must prepare to receive the next entering class from the elementary schools. To do this more effectively, the 9A counselor has been assigned the task of giving the group psychological tests to 6A pupils. Previously the counselor has received training for the work from the assistant on the central office staff, and has had the actual practice, under supervision, of giving the 9A psychological tests to the pupils in his own school. Similar preparation is made for the giving of the 6A tests, although not so much supervision is required because of the greater experience of the counselor. The psychological testing program of the counselor is thus very heavy once in three years, but in the meantime there are always a few scattering pupils, who have entered by transfer or were absent, who must be tested. These keep the counselor in practice.

When the counselor visits the elementary schools to give these tests, opportunities are provided for becoming acquainted with the principals and teachers of those schools, as well as with the pupils who are to be his special charge for the next three years. Frequently, much information concerning individual problem cases is provided by teachers and principals on such occasions and a firm basis for later contacts and coöperation is established. The counselor has an opportunity to inspect the test record and guidance cards that are soon to be used by him as a basis for pupil adjustment, and questions concerning the keeping of these records may be discussed by the counselor and principal. When these cards are finally sent on to the junior high school at the end of the first quarter, the counselor transfers

important data to the junior-high-school record sheets and makes his tentative classification of the entering class. Frequently the principal of the junior high school, the principal of the elementary schools, and the class counselor, together, plan and carry out coöperatively a visit of the elementary-school pupils to the junior high school before the close of the 6A term. But this is not a necessary part of the program.

It should be evident from a careful study of the chart that the 9A counselor lays a foundation for coöperation with the elementary-school principals and teachers. These are continued through friendly relations that provide the counselor with either direct or indirect contacts with pupils as they pass through the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of the elementary school which will become his next counseling group. Meanwhile, the counselor carries on a carefully organized and integrated program with his own pupils in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. At the same time he is participating in conferences with the advisers of his own grade in other schools in which he discusses not only the current problems of the grade, but also six special fields of interest—a new field each term. Again, at the same time he is carrying on follow-up studies of graduates and pupils who have entered employment in coöperation with the counselor in the corresponding grade in the senior high school, and occasionally meets the counselors to whom he has sent his pupils and to whom he must send the oncoming class.

This program provides a carefully organized and planned method of articulation from grade to grade and school to school, as well as from school to employment. There is nothing theoretical or fantastic about it. Every element of the program is actually in practice in the Providence schools.

Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools

William C. Reavis

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Reavis, professor of education at the University of Chicago, is chairman of the committee responsible for this issue of the CLEARING HOUSE. For the last decade, Dr. Reavis has held a preëminent place in the field of guidance. The article which follows is based upon his experience as a member of the staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education.*

P. W. L. C.

THE LAST twenty years have witnessed a rapid development of guidance programs in secondary schools. A voluminous literature on guidance has been produced, officers on personnel have been added to the school staffs, and budget provisions have been made for guidance services in some school systems and in many individual secondary schools. Naturally some stock taking of guidance programs is both desirable and necessary.

One of the projects of the National Survey of Secondary Education had for its purpose a study of guidance programs in city school systems and individual secondary schools reputed to have made significant progress in the organization and administration of guidance services.

NEED OF GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Guidance services on the part of the secondary school are rendered necessary by at least four conditions: namely, (1) the character of the demands for secondary education, (2) the changes in the social and economic order to which the secondary-school pupil must adjust himself, (3) the needs of the adolescent for counsel and guidance, and (4) the necessity of avoiding waste in the process of education.

Secondary education until within recent years has been selective in character and largely individualistic. Now its tendency is general and social. The change has brought about an expanded and enriched curriculum involving differentiation, that requires a pro-

gram of guidance if the needs of pupils are to be served properly. The problem involved in the foregoing statement can be readily appreciated when viewed in the light of the increase in course offerings in secondary schools during the last twenty-five years (477 per cent).¹ The fact that in the same period of time the population of the school districts considered in arriving at the foregoing percentage increased only 66 per cent shows that the change cannot be explained solely on the ground of increased school enrollment.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CHANGES

The adjustment of pupils of high-school age to the complex world in which they live is no simple matter. The individual's world today is vastly larger and more complex than it was a generation ago. Important changes in the social and economic structure render both social and vocational adjustments difficult. The rapid shifting of population from rural to urban life has complicated the processes of social and economic adjustment. As a result, the individual at the threshold of his entrance into college or industry and adult community life is frequently overwhelmed by experiences which he does not fully understand and cannot clearly interpret. Since the home is usually unable to provide the guidance needed in the interpretation of many experiences encountered by the youth, the secondary school is compelled to assume the function formerly discharged by the home. If the school fails to assume this function the individual is apt to flounder for want of guidance and may fail to find himself with respect to his interests and capacity or to take full advantage of the opportunities offered in school and

¹ G. E. Van Dyke, "Trends in the Development of the High-School Offerings," II, *School Review*, December 1931, p. 738.

society for his growth and development.

The needs of the youth of high-school age for guidance are both many and varied. On account of the stage in his development, physical, mental, and social changes may occur which baffle his understanding. The high-school age is commonly regarded as a period in the life of the youth of great importance because of the adjustments which must be made. Problems that have to do with the intellectual and physical development, choice of companions, social activities, and the formation of right social attitudes must be met and solved. The school is required to understand the needs of its young people and to provide the guidance service which the pupils as individuals require.

That many schools have not met successfully the responsibilities imposed by the guidance function is evidenced by high percentages of withdrawal in each succeeding year of the secondary school and by high percentages of failure in different subject-matter fields. Recent evidence of withdrawals in secondary schools is furnished in the survey² of public schools of Chicago, Illinois, in which remarkable holding power of 98 per cent was found for the ninth grade. The percentage drops, however, to 78 for the tenth grade, 49 for the eleventh, and 34 for the twelfth. For the same secondary schools the percentage of pupils failing in their work for the semester ending January 1931 was 12 per cent and June 1931, 11.1 per cent. The range of the different schools for the semester ending June 1931 was from 6.4 per cent to 17.5. Failure data for other secondary schools reveal percentages both greater and less than those cited for Chicago. However, irrespective of amount, failure involves waste in the process of secondary education which can and should be remedied and as far as possible prevented through the effective guidance of pupils.

Data³ collected in 1927 from a sample

group of 522 secondary schools in 41 States ranging in enrollment from 4 pupils to 6,500 show that, according to the judgment of the principals, educational guidance was provided in 87 per cent of the schools, personal guidance in 83 per cent of the schools, and vocational guidance in 74 per cent of the schools. The findings of the sampling indicate that the activities involved in the three general types of guidance specified are carried on in the large majority of secondary schools.

Other data⁴ collected the same year from 336 secondary schools in 44 States ranging in enrollment from 47 to 4,072 regarding specific phases of guidance show that a median of 24.9 activities of guidance with a range of 51 (5 to 56) were thought by the principals to be carried on in their schools. Among the leading activities through which guidance opportunities were provided in the different schools were (1) discipline in 72.2 per cent of the schools; (2) oversight of conduct, 74.6 per cent; (3) guidance concerning quality of work, 63.5 per cent; (4) curriculum guidance, 60.8 per cent; (5) vocational guidance, 37.7 per cent; (6) placement, 20.4 per cent; and (7) follow-up service, 13.5 per cent.

The variation in the percentages of the two investigations cited are accounted for by the vagueness of the term guidance. To some persons the term guidance is very general and is virtually synonymous with the process of education. An individual with this conception might consider that curriculum guidance is educational, personal, and vocational in character when evaluating guidance activities according to the three general categories, but as curriculum guidance only and not vocational or personal when evaluating guidance according to specific categories.

The foregoing facts indicate that guidance in some form or other (general or specific) is a well-established function in most secondary schools. The activities carried on in sec-

² G. D. Strayer, *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, 1932*, Vol. II, "Secondary Education in Chicago" (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), p. 7.

³ W. C. Reavis and R. C. Woellner, *Office Practices in Secondary Schools* (Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers, 1930), pp. 190-197.

⁴ L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932), pp. 511-513.

secondary schools under the caption guidance are extremely varied. In some schools guidance probably means whatever principal or teachers do for pupils in the way of personal counsel or advice. In other schools guidance activities are roughly differentiated into types, such as educational, personal, vocational, social, moral, and the like.

school principal. In 77 per cent of the schools this officer provides guidance for boys and in 56 per cent for girls. The assistant principals are assigned the responsibility for boys in 32 per cent of the schools and for girls in 26 per cent. Counselors for boys and deans for girls are employed for the purpose in 21 and 50 per cent of the

TABLE I
Percentage of Schools in Different Enrollment Groups Utilizing Services of
Different Guidance Functionaries*

Functionaries	Enrollment Groups		
	Under 200	200-999	1,000 and over
Principal	64.9	53.4	29.0
Homeroom adviser	21.6	66.0	88.2
Dean of girls	29.7	45.6	73.1
Dean of boys	13.5	27.7	46.2
Counselor	2.7	10.2	28.0
Visiting teacher	5.4	6.8	19.4
Guidance committee	2.7	4.9	20.4

Still other schools analyze guidance into specific activities, such as providing assistance to pupils in choosing curricula, overcoming deficiencies, developing special talents, and cultivating intellectual interests; or imparting occupational information, advising regarding the choice of an occupation, assisting in securing employment, helping in the choice of a college, and giving supervisory oversight to an individual after employment.

Both general and specific activities of the sort enumerated in the foregoing paragraph are evidently carried on in many secondary schools. In some schools the activities are carried on only informally and incidentally by the regular school officers: principal, deans, and teachers; in other schools they are carried on formally and systematically under the direction of persons specially trained for the purpose and definitely charged with the responsibility of serving pupils through the types of specific activities enumerated.

GUIDANCE FUNCTIONARIES

The functionary found responsible most frequently for the assumption of guidance duties in a sampling of 522 schools⁵ is the

* W. C. Reavis and R. C. Woellner, *op. cit.*, pp. 191-197.

schools, respectively. The guidance functions are delegated to other officers whose titles were not specified in approximately one sixth of the schools.

Other data of a more specific character reveal a tendency in secondary schools to develop programs of counseling and guidance around different guidance functionaries. The functionaries and the percentage of schools in each of three enrollment groups utilizing their services in guidance programs are shown in Table I. The data show that the principal is the chief guidance functionary in the small schools (under 200) and the homeroom adviser in the middle-sized (200-999) and large schools (1,000 and over).

GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

The guidance activities carried on in secondary schools are numerous and varied. Analysis of the activities of guidance functionaries made by French⁷ as a part of the Commonwealth Study of Teacher Training resulted in a master list of 180 specific activities which were considered to relate to guid-

* Adapted from L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, *op. cit.*, p. 516.

⁷ Fannie French, *An Analysis of Activities Involved in Pupil Guidance*, unpublished master's thesis, department of education, University of Chicago, 1926, pp. 30-41.

ance in secondary schools. An evaluation of these activities by counselors and by experts in education provides classified lists arranged in order of frequency of performance and in order of performance. The correlation between frequency of performance of activities and their relative importance as determined by counselors reveal certain strength and weakness in the guidance activities carried on by the principal and his assistants in the secondary schools. In activities which involved advising with parents, counseling with individual pupils, and advising with pupils in groups the correlations are high, being .767, .742, and .728, respectively. In activities pertaining to cooperation with community agencies and with teachers the correlations are medium (.404 and .316), but in activities involving the collecting and recording of data and assisting in extracurricular activities the correlations are low (.265 and .113).

In the school systems and individual schools visited by the members of the survey staff the following prominent activities were observed: (1) instruction of pupils regarding occupations; (2) occupational research; (3) placement service; (4) follow-up investigations; (5) adjustment service between employees and employers; (6) home visitation; (7) preparation of case histories; (8) administration of tests to pupils; (9) preparation of guidance bulletins; (10) presentation of information to groups; (11) individual counseling; (12) case conferences with groups; (13) sponsorship of pupil activities; (14) conferences with sponsors and teachers regarding individual pupils; (15) preparation of material for try-out courses; (16) organization of guidance clinics; (17) reports of activities to administrative officers.

Other guidance activities closely related to those enumerated in the foregoing paragraph were observed in the school systems and individual schools studied. These activities are considered in the case reports in which the activities were best exemplified, and are dealt with fully under those heads.

CASE STUDIES OF GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

The school systems of which case studies were made are Boston, Chicago, Providence, Cincinnati, and Milwaukee. The activities featured in the case reports are: (1) vocational guidance in Boston and Chicago; (2) personnel research, orientation, and counseling in Providence; (3) occupational research and counseling in Cincinnati; and (4) life advisement in Milwaukee. The activities specifically considered in the five reports of guidance programs in individual secondary schools are (1) guidance for continuation pupils in the Milwaukee Vocational School; (2) personnel service through committees in the Joliet Township High School and Junior College; (3) the integrated organization of advisory service in the New Trier Township High School; (4) guidance through administrative officers in the Thornton Township High School; and (5) psychiatric-social guidance in the Township High School and Junior College, La Salle, Illinois.

TYPES OF GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Analysis of the case reports for the five school systems and five individual secondary schools discloses four general types of guidance programs: (1) centralized bureaus of guidance for secondary schools in city systems, represented by Boston, Chicago, and Cincinnati; (2) city school systems with a central guidance organization but the individual secondary school considered the unit in the program, represented by Providence and Milwaukee; (3) centralized bureaus or departments in individual secondary schools, represented by the Milwaukee Vocational School and the Township High School and Junior College, La Salle, Illinois; (4) central guidance organizations in individual secondary schools which utilize regular officers and teachers as guidance functionaries, represented by the Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Thornton Township High School, and the New Trier Township High School. Virtually the same guidance activities are un-

dertaken under the different programs. The chief variations consist in the methods employed in the several school systems and individual schools.

THE CENTRAL GUIDANCE BUREAU

Principles formulated by the National Vocational Guidance Association⁸ in 1921 and revised in 1924, 1930, and 1931 urge the development of a special bureau or separate departments responsible directly to the superintendent of schools for carrying on vocational-guidance service. While recognizing the fact that local conditions render impossible the prescription of the exact form of the bureau or department, the activities to be performed are specified and the recommendation made that the activities be performed only by persons possessing the necessary personal qualifications, experience, and training. Obviously, the plan was intended for use in school systems and individual schools of considerable size.

The organization of a guidance bureau makes possible the carrying on of certain guidance activities, such as occupational research, follow-up studies, and vocational guidance in connection with placement in a central office apart from the administrative work of the schools. A staff of trained workers can be maintained who not only perform the office duties incident to guidance but who also visit schools on call and engage in group instruction, group counseling, and individual counseling. They may also give advice to teachers, parents, and administrative officers regarding guidance of an unspecialized sort that can be carried on in the schools or homes by persons not specifically trained for guidance work.

The director of the guidance bureau is usually responsible to an assistant superintendent or to the superintendent. The director is expected to formulate the guidance policy of the school system subject to the approval of his superior officers; to organize

the bureau or department as a clearing house for problems of guidance, placement, and follow-up; and to provide assistants who can render expert counseling service to schools desiring such aid.

The activities which can be carried on in the schools by the guidance assistants are group interviewing of pupils in entering classes, individual interviewing of members of the graduating class, individual interviewing of pupils as needs arise, instructing classes in occupations, assisting graduates or pupils required to leave school to secure employment, keeping records of pupils interviewed, visiting employers to enlist their interests and to secure knowledge of the conditions under which employed pupils work, conducting community surveys to ascertain environmental conditions and opportunities for employment, and carrying on follow-up studies of withdrawals and graduates.

The guidance bureau is not expected to provide all the guidance service in the individual schools of the system. The principal of the individual school through his teachers and administrative assistants is expected to aid pupils in the choice of courses or subjects, in the selection of extracurricular activities, in the development of intellectual interests, in social adjustments, in overcoming difficulties in classroom work, and the like. The guidance bureau provides the specialized service and aids the principal in the organization of the school's guidance program and in the integration of its various guidance activities.

In large cities the staff of the guidance bureau is usually inadequate to provide all the guidance service needed in all the schools.⁹ Some schools of a system will be satisfied with nominal services while others will desire all the service possible for the bureau to render. As a result the guidance programs in the individual schools of a school system often vary greatly in both scope and effectiveness. This condition

⁸ See, *Basic Units for an Introductory Course in Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931), pp. 181-194.

⁹ E.g., in 1930-1931, Chicago had a staff of 31; Boston, 18; and Cincinnati, 8.

should be charged largely to the administrators of the individual schools rather than to the central bureau.

The development of the central bureau of guidance in school systems and in large schools makes possible occupational research and the utilization of the findings in vocational guidance and placement to an extent scarcely possible under the other types of programs. However, the guidance activities that belong in the individual schools are likely to be neglected unless complementary guidance programs are developed by the principals of the schools or are projected by the guidance bureau for individual schools. The weakness of the guidance programs under the control of central bureaus is not inherent, but rather the result of the objectives of the bureaus.

GUIDANCE FOR INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

This type of guidance organization places the responsibility for the guidance program on the head of the individual secondary school. A central organization is established to render consultant service to the principals and specialized services to the local guidance functionaries. The plan eliminates the necessity of specific appropriations in the budget solely for guidance purposes. Guidance is integrated with education and is supported as a vital part of the work of the individual school. The activities of guidance should be differentiated and definitely assigned to officers of administration and teachers properly qualified to carry on the activities assigned.

The administrative officers consisting of principal, vice principal, deans, director of extracurricular activities, and department heads accept executive responsibility for providing the program of studies, materials of instruction, the record system, admission of pupils to school, classification of pupils, preparation of the school schedule, arrangement of the program of pupil activities, and administration of cases of discipline. They interview parents, administer attendance, record and evaluate credits, and organize, direct, and supervise the functioning of the

different members of the school staff. Many of the activities of the administrative officers affect guidance only indirectly, yet unless the relation of administrative activities to guidance is clearly conceived the guidance activities of other workers may be hampered or completely inhibited.

The director of guidance, in case there is such an official, projects the guidance program subject to the approval of the school head. He outlines the guidance activities to be performed by the counselors, homeroom advisers, and teachers, and provides the training needed to carry on the guidance program. He interprets the guidance program to the school and community, carries on research basic to guidance, and performs guidance activities which require types of skill not possessed by the other members of the staff.

The counselors teach the courses in occupations, aid the pupils in the selection of courses, give group guidance to all the pupils, and counsel to individual pupils in need of adjustment. They may also serve part time as regular teachers.

The homeroom advisers may accept responsibility for the orientation of their pupils, the maintenance of pupil morale, and the development of a wholesome attitude towards the school as a civic enterprise. The advisers keep the records of the pupils, give advice with respect to extracurricular and other social activities, and act as the intermediary for the pupils with administrative and guidance officers and parents.

The teacher must be encouraged to play a large part in the guidance program of the individual school. His interest in the welfare of the pupil is indispensable if guidance is to bear fruit. He should sense the symptoms of maladjustment in a pupil in the incipient stages, bring the guidance organization to bear on the case, contribute to the diagnosis of the causes of maladjustment, and assist in the application of the corrective or remedial measures advised. Furthermore, the teacher may give specific guidance to pupils in the pursuit of intellectual interests, in the development of proper habits

of study, and in the development of the proper conception of the processes of education and the opportunities for education provided through the school.

The foregoing analysis of the activities of the guidance functionaries offers promise of a balanced program of counseling and guidance for the individual secondary schools of a city system. The neglect of any of the important phases of guidance, either through failure to give them proper emphasis or through failure to assign them to the proper guidance officers for performance, may contribute to maladjustment and failure on the part of pupils.

The central organization is responsible for encouraging the development of complete programs of guidance in the individual secondary schools. The chief official of the central organization may be an executive officer, as in the case of Providence, R.I., or a consultant officer, as in the case of Milwaukee, Wis. In either case he will likely function in the individual school as an adviser to the principal and an instructor for the other administrative officers and teachers. Through supervision he seeks to develop a guidance program in all of the individual schools in accordance with the guidance policy of the central organization.

Guidance service on a State basis of the type under consideration was proposed at the meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association, February 21, 1930. A committee on State guidance programs and activities was appointed, that, in conjunction with a National Advisory Committee, submitted a preliminary report at the meeting of the association in 1931 offering suggestions for the organization of State guidance programs. Thirty-nine States, according to the report of the committee, have appointed representatives to cooperate with the National Vocational Guidance Association and the National Advisory Committee. Nine of these States have launched guidance programs. The committee believes that the appointment of a full-time, trained guidance director, supervisor, specialist, or counselor

for a school, district, county, or State is greatly to be desired, although not essential at the start. It is often possible to find some one in one of these units who is willing to accept the responsibility for the promotion of guidance work on a part-time basis. The county program is regarded by the committee as one of the most effective devices for developing a State-wide guidance service. The county superintendent of schools is able through his office to reach all of the principals of a county, whether the schools are under his supervision or not. The county guidance officer is thus able to reach the smaller secondary schools and can give direction and encouragement in the development of guidance programs for the local schools. The State guidance service may be placed under a guidance director or some other member of the State department who can cooperate with the county officer in holding conferences and in distributing guidance material prepared by the State department. The material may be in the form of a syllabus or textbook. The important function of a State guidance service is the development of guidance programs in the small secondary schools.

In contrast with the central bureau type of guidance program the plan under consideration seeks to develop a complete functioning program in every school under supervision, rather than a divided program with certain guidance activities carried on by specialists in the central bureau and other activities carried on by specialists only in certain individual schools in which the leadership seeks the guidance service of the central bureau and for which the limited service is available. In one system the cost of the program is considerably greater and in the other considerably less than that of the three cities under central-bureau type of organization.

CENTRALIZED GUIDANCE IN SINGLE SCHOOLS

In secondary schools in which the principal is the chief executive officer with full power or much autonomy to organize and

administer his school a guidance organization may be effected very similar in character to that of the central-bureau type in city systems. The guidance organization can be made a structural part of the school organization and functional responsibility delegated to the director for organizing and carrying on the guidance activities specified in the school program. The director and his staff may undertake to carry on all guidance activities or he may organize his department to carry on certain activities and delegate to administrative officers and teachers certain other activities retaining supervisory oversight. In either case, the possibility of coordinating the guidance activities of the individual school is greater than under the central-bureau type of organization for a city system.

The programs of the two schools for which case reports have been presented vary markedly in character, although the type of organization is much the same. Guidance is a department in the administrative organization of each school and the directors are executive officers of their departments with executive authority in carrying on the guidance functions of the school. They may summon individual pupils for conference, administer tests to classes or groups, give advice to pupils regarding the choice of college or occupation, make contacts with business organizations and industry with respect to placements, carry on research investigations designed to facilitate guidance, and cooperate with welfare organizations in the interests of the pupil personnel of the school.

The central organization in the individual school has a distinct advantage over its prototype, the central bureau of the city systems, in that its activities are concentrated in an individual school instead of dissipated among a number of schools. In operation it more closely resembles the guidance organizations in city systems which emphasize the individual schools as units; it differs in that it maintains a staff of guidance officers instead of utilizing regular administrative officers and teachers.

GUIDANCE BY OFFICERS AND TEACHERS

In schools classified under this type of guidance organization the principal or a trained counselor serves as director of the guidance program. Administrative officers and teachers are utilized as functionaries in carrying on guidance activities.

Large secondary schools with large staffs of officers and teachers make possible the selection of functionaries with special aptitude or training for guidance duties and the differentiation of duties along functional lines. The prevailing organization of the guidance work in the large schools is the homeroom plan supplemented by special administrative officers, such as the dean of girls, dean of boys, director of personnel, director of extracurricular activities, and the like, or class principals, advisory committees, and special counselors.

Through functionaries of the kinds indicated pupils are guided in their choice of curricula, the adjustment of their schedules, the selection of extracurricular activities, the correction of disabilities, the development of special interests and abilities, the choice of a college or occupation, and in securing placement. Activities of the sort specified are closely related. Unless the school organizes and coordinates the work of the functionaries who perform the activities into a program the guidance services will very likely be haphazard and unsystematic.

The data available and the cases reported show great variation in the guidance programs of the large secondary schools. In some schools the guidance duties are assumed chiefly by homeroom advisers, in others by special officers, such as class principals and committees, in others by administrative officers.

It is scarcely possible for the small secondary school to secure either the full-time or the part-time service of a trained worker in the field of guidance. Its program of guidance must therefore be developed by the principal and carried on either by him or his teachers. An example of this type of

guidance program is reported by Proctor¹⁰ for a small rural high school in California. The principal of this high school has developed a program for his school which consists: (1) in providing a visiting day for the eighth-grade graduates who are to enter the high school the following semester. The graduates spend a day at the high school as the guests of the teachers and student body. They are shown through the building, are given information regarding the program of study and the work of the different departments, and are entertained at a dinner by the high-school pupils. (2) The high-school principal visits the eighth-grade schools and secures an individual record of each pupil who is to enter the high school the following semester. The record includes scholastic marks of the pupil, the results of mental and achievement tests in the elementary-school subjects, and confidential information regarding the personal history and qualifications of the pupil. (3) During the month prior to the opening of school, the principal or the freshman-class adviser visits the homes of all the prospective freshmen. Notice of the visit is sent in advance and a conference is arranged with the parents and pupils to discuss the plans of the pupil for his first year in the high school. (4) A registration day on Friday or Saturday preceding the opening of school on Monday is

held at the school. The pupils come with their parents for a conference with the principal and class adviser. At this conference a tentative schedule for each pupil is prepared and formal registration takes place. (5) Pupils are grouped in ability sections in English and in mathematics. (6) The class adviser continues with the freshmen as adviser until they graduate from the school. (7) The class adviser keeps a record of the pupils and counsels them regarding their school progress. (8) A six-week unit in the civics course for seniors is given over to vocational information. (9) The teachers in charge of physical education for boys and girls have the county school nurse give advice on social, moral, and health programs. (10) The work of the guidance program is carefully supervised by the principal and the work of the different persons responsible for guidance is articulated through the principal.

In either large or small schools a guidance program may be developed for an individual school as an integral part of the educational program. The cost of the program may be either greater or less than that of the central guidance department in individual secondary schools, depending on the elaborateness of the organization and the utilization of administrative or teaching time for separate guidance activities. The evidence indicates that the cost of the guidance program will be less if regular officers and teachers are utilized as guidance functionaries.

¹⁰ W. M. Proctor, "Guidance Program of a Rural High School in California," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, September 1930, pp. 14-16.

The Pasadena Junior College Program

William M. Proctor

EDITOR'S NOTE: Professor Proctor describes the guidance program of the Pasadena four-year junior college and reports the results of an investigation which evaluates its effectiveness.

W. C. R.

THE CITY of Pasadena, California, has been carrying on one of the most significant educational experiments in school administration that has been entered upon by any city of that size in the United States. In 1924-1925, after an election held to pass upon the question of remaining on the six-three-three-two type of organization or passing over to the six-four-four type, the latter type of administrative set-up was adopted. After being approved by the voters the superintendent of schools and his staff carried out a building program which made the junior high schools over into four-year institutions, accommodating grades 7, 8, 9, and 10, while the former high school and junior-college plant was altered to meet the needs of a four-year junior college, grades 11, 12, 13, and 14. The final consummation of the shift from the old to the new type of organization was achieved by the opening of the school year 1928-1929. The plan has therefore completed four academic years. During the year 1931-1932 the writer was engaged by the Pasadena Board of Education to direct a series of studies dealing with the working of the new plan of organization. Among other items investigated was the guidance and counseling system. Some of the findings of that study are herewith reported.

GUIDANCE STAFF

During the year 1931-1932 there was a dean of guidance and seven full-time counselors handling the counseling service in the Pasadena Junior College. In addition to this immediate group there was a supervisor of guidance for the city system who participated in the orientation course along with

the deans of men and women, the dean of records, and the principal of the junior college. Eight people were therefore giving full time to guidance and counseling, and five others were giving part of their time to such service for a student body of about four thousand students. The supervisor of guidance and the deans of men and women could be said to give about one half of their time to guidance activities, and the dean of records and the principal about one fourth of their time. Thus it will be seen that the four thousand students of the junior college had the equivalent of one full-time counselor to each four hundred students.

DIVISION OF LABOR AMONG COUNSELORS

The students were divided among the seven full-time counselors alphabetically without regard to sex, so that each one had about six hundred students for whom they were responsible in matters pertaining to adjustments of programs, scholarship difficulties, and vocational counseling. Each one of the seven counselors, however, specialized in some one phase of information and acted as expert for the group in that field. For example, one of the men counselors (there were four men and three women counselors) specialized in industrial vocations. He had engineering training and shop experience. Another of the men specialized in commercial vocations, another in the professions, etc. One of the women specialized in college entrance requirements, another woman counselor specialized in occupational opportunities available for non-college women in the Los Angeles area. Thus, in routine matters not calling for expert vocational knowledge, each counselor looked after his "string" of counselees, but when special problems arose they were referred to the experts for advice along the

line of their particular need for information. The counseling work was both individualized and specialized in this manner, and the combination seemed to be working out to the great advantage of the students concerned.

THE COUNSELORS' USE OF TIME

One of the studies relating to guidance in the Pasadena four-year junior college had to do with the ways in which counselors spent their time. Under the direction of Miss Margaret Bennett, supervisor of guidance, each counselor kept track of his or her time, in minutes, for an entire month. These data were gathered under the headings: interviews, general office administration, group guidance, and meetings, as shown in Table I.

An analysis of these data gives a better idea than any amount of descriptive matter could of the activities of the guidance workers in the Pasadena Junior College. It will be noted that student interviews absorb over 70 per cent of the counselor's time, and also that the two largest items in the interviewing procedure are programming and educational and vocational advisement, which between them absorb 52.4 per cent of the counselor's time. The interviews with parents and with other teachers regarding advisees demand an additional 7.9 per cent of the counseling time. Certain items relating to attendance account for another 2.8 per cent of the working day.

There is rather sharp disagreement among guidance authorities in regard to the advisability of the counselors having anything to

TABLE I

Distribution of Counselors' Time in the Pasadena Junior College

I. Interviews and matters with which they were concerned:

Attendance	2.8
Programming	25.0
Educational and vocational guidance	30.4
Personal and social guidance	2.7
Case studies	0.5
New students	1.5
Withdrawals	0.9
With parents	4.3
With teachers	3.6
With administrators and supervisors	1.2
Total on student interviews	72.9

II. General office administration:

Checking	3.4
Phoning parents regarding absences	1.6
Issuing absence excuses	1.4
Checking student records	3.6
Research, surveys, etc.	3.4
Total on general office administration	13.4

III. Group Guidance:

Visiting junior high schools	1.9
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IV. Meetings:

Administrative	3.6
School committees	2.6
Faculty meetings	1.7
Professional committees	3.7
Total meetings	11.8

Total time distribution	100.0
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do with checking student attendance. The phase of attendance to which the Pasadena counselors give attention is that which has most to do with its influence upon scholarship and behavior problems. An attendance clerk looks after the clerical and statistical aspects of attendance. Under office administration there is an additional 3 per cent of time given to interviewing or telephoning parents in regard to absences and to issuing absence excuses. The giving of 5.8 per cent of their time to this service might be questioned unless it can be shown to yield genuine values with relation to student adjustment that could not be had in any other way.

Roughly, 12 per cent of the counselor's time is taken with meetings of one kind and another. If the effort involved in getting to and from meetings and the breaking up of working days by such events were also added it would amount up to a much larger total. A certain amount of conference and committee work is not only inevitable but desirable. It might easily transpire that such meetings would consume an undue share of time that should be given to individual counseling. Clerical and administrative duties should be rigidly held down in order to provide time for the most essential service that the counselor renders; namely, his personal contacts with those for whom he is responsible.

FEATURES OF GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Once each semester an entire faculty has a meeting at which guidance problems are discussed. Special problems are presented by the counselors and faculty coöperation is enlisted in their solution. Faculty members indicate the ways in which the counselors could render more effective service in relation to the students under their care. This conference meeting keeps the faculty in touch with the counselors and their methods and stimulates interest and coöperation in achieving the objectives of guidance in the school.

Another feature of the counseling work is that the parents of all 11th-grade students (entering students) are invited to meet with the counselors while they are on duty just

after school closes in June and during the two weeks before school opens in September to talk over the programs and other problems of their children. For this purpose, and also to do a certain amount of research work with the data gathered during the school year, the counselors put in an extra month of service each year, two weeks at the close of the school year and two weeks before the opening of the next school year.

There is a group meeting of all the counselors of the city once each month under the chairmanship of the supervisor of guidance. At this meeting general policies are discussed and also proposals for the improvement of the guidance service. Twice a year the deans of men and women and other administrators are invited to sit in so that difficulties may be ironed out and problems requiring joint action may be frankly discussed. Occasionally, there are reviews of recent books and magazine articles in the field, or reports on special studies being carried on by individual counselors.

A COUNSELING CHALLENGE MET

In September 1931, the dean of counseling of the junior college asked the principal's executive council to permit thirty-two students who had been disqualified at the end of the previous school year to return to school. This was to be with the understanding that the thirty-two cases would be divided up between the seven counselors and given special attention to see whether they might not be able to make good under careful guidance. The request was granted. Thirty of the thirty-two were elected to return. They were to be given one semester to make good in, and if they made good they would be fully reinstated. At the end of the first semester it was found that twenty-three had met all requirements and were reinstated, five were still on probation, and only three had been found to be hopeless and finally disqualified. Such a percentage of salvage, 73 per cent fully restored and 16 per cent still having a fighting chance, is an excellent indication of the possibilities of careful individual counseling.

Maladjustments in personal relations with parents, teachers, and other students were found to have had more to do with the original failures than lack of sufficient mental ability.

A RATING SCALE APPLIED

The general counseling program of the Pasadena Junior College was examined and

limitations of the score card employed are freely admitted, but it was the best instrument available at the time of its use. The results of the scoring are set forth in Table II. It will be noticed that the ratings of the various groups of raters are rather uniform. The local administrative group gave the most conservative ratings, and the counselors gave the most generous ratings. The out-

TABLE II

Pasadena Junior College scored on a score card for evaluating the administrative set-up for guidance in secondary schools, scoring done by outside educators, local administrators, principal, and counselors

Main subdivisions of score card	Perfect score	Points awarded by outside educators	Per cent of perfect score	Points awarded by local administration	Per cent of perfect score	Points awarded by J.C. principal	Per cent of perfect score	Points awarded by J.C. counselors	Per cent of perfect score	Total average score	Per cent of perfect score
I. Organization of guidance	400	341	85.0	285	71.3	340	85.0	346	87.0	328	82.0
II. Devices, agencies, and techniques of guidance	500	355	71.0	380	76.0	350	70.0	435	87.0	380	76.0
III. Placement and follow-up	100	38	38.0	60	60.0	65	65.0	53	53.0	54	54.0
Total positive score	1000 Possible	734	73.4	725	72.5	755	75.5	834	83.4	762	76.2
IV. Penalties	270	0		0		15		0		0	
Final totals		734	73.4	725	72.5	740	74.0	834	83.4	758	75.8

rated by a group of outside educators, by administrators and board members from the central organization, by the junior college principal, and by all of the counseling staff, including the dean of guidance and the guidance supervisor. The scale used was developed by H. D. Anderson, J. J. Hall, E. L. Hall, and M. S. Ross under the writer's direction. It had been applied to numerous high schools in California and to several city school systems. While the scale has never been scientifically standardized it did afford the raters an opportunity to react to the same items under similar instructions, and thus to approximate a more objective judgment than would have been possible on the basis of the expression of personal opinion unaided by the rating device employed. The

side raters and the junior college principal gave ratings that are in very close agreement. The fact that so many raters—there were twenty who turned in their score cards—were in such close agreement indicates that the scale has a fair degree of reliability. Other city systems that have been rated on the same score card are Oakland, Berkeley, Sacramento, and San Francisco in California, and Denver in Colorado. Pasadena made the highest score that had up to that time been achieved on the score card used.

PASADENA WELL SERVED

Not only did the Pasadena guidance set-up receive a high score at the hands of those who attempted to evaluate it objectively, but its general excellence was recognized by the

city's being selected as one of the five or six cities in the country chosen by Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver for the Carnegie Foundation Study of the Evaluation of Guidance Outcomes. The returns from this study have not yet been fully tabulated, but from what has been outlined above it will be apparent that Pasadena has a well-organized and well-staffed guidance program. Best evidence of its efficient functioning is the fact

that the junior high school and junior college guidance staffs have been retained in the face of a greatly decreased financial budget. When teacher loads have been increased and when other educational services have been curtailed there is all the more need for an efficient guidance staff. It is gratifying to find that Pasadena has discovered the value of this service and has maintained it at such a high state of efficiency.

College-Freshman Vocational Selections

Robert C. Woellner

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The data regarding college freshmen presented by Professor Woellner indicate some of the weaknesses of guidance programs in secondary schools and the improvements needed.*
W. C. R.

THE PRESENT study presents data concerning the vocational selections made by incoming freshmen of the University of Chicago. The information was gathered by means of inquiry blanks submitted to the freshmen who entered the University in September 1931 and September 1932. Data were obtained concerning 1,365 individuals; 809 men and 556 women. In addition to the information supplied directly by the freshmen, use was made of data concerning the results of the psychological examination of the 1931 class in connection with one phase of the investigation. The results of the investigation are reported herewith.

EXTENT OF VOCATIONAL DECISION

The information supplied by the freshmen disclosed that 883, or 64.6 per cent, had decided upon a vocation. There is a sex difference in regard to deciding upon a vocation. Among the women, 59.5 per cent had made a choice of vocations at the time they entered college, whereas 68.2 per cent of the men had made such a choice. The se-

versity was reported by 813, or 59.5 per cent, of the freshmen. The complexity of modern life emphasizes the need of adequate and well-organized information upon which to base a choice of vocations. Casual observation is not sufficient.

DECISION AND INFORMATION

Of those who had made a vocational decision, 63.6 per cent reported that they had acquired information concerning vocations, whereas, of those who had made no vocational decision, 52.0 per cent reported vocational information. It would seem, therefore, that vocational orientation promotes vocational decision. Vocational decisions without knowledge of vocations should be discouraged. Knowledge of vocational life is not all that a student needs in order to make an intelligent choice of his or her vocation, but it is an important element in solving this important problem.

SOURCES OF VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

The 813 freshmen who reported that they had acquired information concerning vocations were asked to state the source or sources of their information. The relative numerical importance of the sources is shown in the following tabulation:

Source of vocational information	Number	Per cent
1. A high-school course in vocations or careers	134	16.4
2. Part of a course (such as civics)	363	44.6
3. Parents	353	43.4
4. Reading	529	65.0
5. Other means	152	18.6

lection of a vocation is, no doubt, quite tentative. However, some idea of where one is bound vocationally, even though changes follow, reflects a different mental attitude than having no idea at all.

EXTENT OF VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

The acquisition of some organized knowledge of vocations before entering the Uni-

Of the 152 freshmen who checked "other means," 61 stated that they had learned about vocations through vocational lectures in high school, or from a high-school vocational counselor. It is clear from the figures that many of the freshmen who received information acknowledged more than one source. Reading was by far the most commonly employed means of acquiring infor-

Vocation	Men		Women		Men and Women	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Education	42	7.6	116	35.0	158	17.8
Law	135	24.4	19	5.7	154	17.4
Medicine	118	21.3	11	3.3	129	14.6
Science	103	18.6	13	3.9	116	13.1
Business	83	15.0	32	9.6	115	13.0
Journalism	22	3.8	42	12.6	64	7.2
Art and decoration	6	1.1	20	6.0	26	2.9
Social service	—	—	20	6.0	—	—
Archeology and anthropology	6	1.1	9	2.7	15	1.6
Dietetics	—	—	12	3.6	—	—
Foreign service	6	1.1	5	1.5	11	1.2
Library	1	.2	10	3.0	11	1.2
Engineering	10	1.8	—	—	—	—
Music	4	.7	5	1.5	9	1.0
Dramatics	1	.2	8	2.4	9	1.0
Religion	5	.9	2	.6	7	.7
Farming and forestry	3	.5	—	—	—	—
Translation	—	—	3	.9	—	—
Nursing	—	—	2	.6	—	—
Miscellaneous	6	1.1	3	.9	9	1.0

mation concerning vocations, and the separate classroom course the least frequently used for this purpose. It is probably safe to assume that half of the freshmen (a) received no definite vocational instruction in their secondary schools, (b) did not take advantage of the opportunities offered, or (c) did not remember the instruction which they had received.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE VOCATIONS

The types of vocations interesting to those who enter the University of Chicago are shown by the tabulation above.

The new college of the University of Chicago which these students entered provides for general education and does not offer vocational training. It is conceivable, therefore, that students might attend the college for approximately two years and then transfer to a college, either of the University of Chicago or of some other university, to receive the type of specialized training that they desire. The vocations which the freshmen selected vary more than the vocational training opportunities at the University of Chicago, thus suggesting that some of the freshmen planned to transfer to other institutions later.

Although the "scatter" of vocational interests of the freshmen is wide, further dissemination of vocational information among high-school students should tend to make vocational selections of future college freshmen even wider in scope. Such a broadening of vocational interests among college students would increase their chances of employment upon graduation, and would also tend to extend the influence of colleges in the work-a-day world.

SELECTION AND VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

The following data show the relationship between the selection of certain vocations and a knowledge of vocations.

Vocation selected	Percentage possessing vocational information	
	Men	Women
Education	45.2	66.3
Law	71.8	73.6
Medicine	67.7	45.5
Science	65.0	53.8
Business	66.2	62.5
Journalism	72.7	71.4
All others	72.9	60.6

The percentage of freshmen with vocational decisions who possessed vocational information is 63.6.

It seems reasonable to assume that a choice of vocations made upon the basis of organized vocational information is more reliable than one which is made without such knowledge. The foregoing figures indicate some differences in the percentages of the freshmen planning to enter the several vocational fields who possessed vocational information. Of the men who selected education, only 45.2 per cent had learned about vocations, whereas 72.7 per cent of those who selected journalism and 71.8 per cent of those who selected law had vocational information. Among the women, those who selected the field of medicine show a smaller percentage who possessed vocational information than any other vocational group.

VOCATIONAL COUNSELING DESIRED

Of the 1,365 freshmen who supplied information on the inquiry blanks, 506, or 37 per cent, desired vocational counseling. Although the great majority of these had not decided upon a vocation, some of them had made a vocational selection but nevertheless desired counsel.

PSYCHOLOGICAL RANK AND CHOICE

Information obtained from the inquiry blanks submitted to the 1931 group of freshmen was studied in relation to the data obtained from their psychological examinations in an attempt to discover the relationship of intelligence to the making of vocational decision, and the relationship of intelligence to the various fields of vocational choice. The medians shown represent the percentile rank of each group.

cation have a slightly better psychological percentile rank than the freshmen who had decided upon a vocation; and that of the freshmen who had selected a vocation, those who chose education have the highest psychological percentile rank, those who chose business have the second highest rank, those who chose law, third, and those who chose medicine, fourth.

SUMMARY

The information disclosed by the study indicates that there is need for more organized vocational counseling in both high schools and colleges. Approximately one third of the freshmen enter the University of Chicago without having a vocational objective; among the women the situation is more critical than among the men. Moreover, approximately two fifths of the freshmen enter the University of Chicago without ever having been taught about vocations, and probably half of the freshmen received no organized instruction from their secondary schools. Of those who had decided upon a career, about half had chosen one of the three most crowded professions, education, law, and medicine. Many of these students, no doubt, should be encouraged to change their plans before making extended preparation, and many others may find it necessary to change their plans and may then need vocational guidance. It is encouraging to note that a larger percentage of the freshmen who had received vocational information had made a vocational choice than of those who had received no vocational information. Quantitative studies of

	Men		Women		Total	
	Number	Median	Number	Median	Number	Median
Vocational decision made	263	53.4	158	45.5	421	48.8
No vocational decision made	139	58.4	122	50.0	261	53.4
Education	23	66.7	62	53.0	85	57.9
Business	30	60.0	9	37.5	39	54.5
Law	57	45.6	11	34.5	68	43.6
Medicine	61	38.1	4	30.0	65	38.1

It appears from the data shown that the freshmen who had not decided upon a vo-

this nature, however, cannot fully evaluate vocational guidance or its results.

Guidance in the Junior College

A. J. Brumbaugh

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Guidance in the junior college is defined by Dean Brumbaugh in terms of advisement with respect to noninstructional activities. He urges closer coördination of guidance functions at the high-school and junior-college levels and indicates how desired results can be brought about.*

W. C. R.

THE TERM guidance has an implication which is inconsistent with present theories of education at both the secondary and the college levels. It suggests constraining a student to go in a certain direction or to conform to specified patterns of behavior. It has, without a doubt, been very appropriately applied to much of the traditional procedure in education, but the recent emphasis upon freedom, individual initiative, and individual responsibility necessitates a redefinition of guidance or the substitution of a new term more appropriate to the functions which are described.

Guidance is used in this discussion to include the noninstructional activities of an institution which are designed, among other things, to aid a student (1) to work at a maximum level of scholastic efficiency, (2) to formulate for himself well-defined educational and vocational objectives, (3) to plan his educational program in the light of these objectives, (4) to follow a well-balanced program of activities and recreation, (5) to overcome handicaps and limitations in his personality, (6) to secure financial aid through employment or other avenues whereby he may complete his education, and (7) to get started in his chosen vocation. It will be noted then that guidance on the one hand connotes more than constraint or supervision, but on the other hand is not made synonymous with the whole process of education. It is employed to designate those special functions which usually come under the head of student counseling or student advisory service.

There is need of a much closer coördination than now exists between the guidance functions in the high schools and in the junior colleges. Many phases of guidance are similar at the two levels; techniques appropriate to similar situations can be developed coöperatively. Moreover, each type of institution is failing to take into account the guidance which the other is providing or is in a position to provide. The need of coördination is further emphasized by the fact that generally neither the high school nor the junior college is making adequate provision for certain essential forms of guidance. For the purpose of further amplification, specific reference is made in the discussion which follows to the coördination of guidance along four lines: (1) the selection of students who shall go to college; (2) the direction of students in their academic progress; (3) the determination of individual vocational objectives; (4) the development of an effective personality.

Who shall go to college? This question has been discussed pro and con by journalists and educators but still remains unanswered. It seems reasonably certain, however, that owing to economic limitations, to inequalities in mental ability, and to the special aptitudes which some individuals possess, many students will terminate their education before they receive a degree in college. The experimental evidence thus far available indicates that some students, owing to their superior ability, their initiative, and their good background of general education, are qualified to undertake college work earlier than they are permitted to under the present system of organization. Furthermore, the level at which the work of different colleges and universities is pitched varies considerably, so that a high-school student may enter one institution and progress satisfactorily, while in another he will

be unsuccessful. The close relationship between guidance from the point of view of the high school and of the college, with reference to going to college and the type of institution to be attended, is apparent from this partial analysis of factors to be considered.

The first steps towards a better coördination of guidance with reference to the selection of college entrants have already been taken in a few institutions. For example, the college aptitude rating which Dean Johnston has devised at the University of Minnesota involves a comparatively simple statistical procedure whereby students who are almost certain to fail may be identified with considerable accuracy. The interpretation of this rating in the booklet entitled *Who Should Go to College?* is available to both counselors and students in high schools. There is, moreover, a State-wide testing program in Minnesota, making available alike to high-school and college counselors some of the data necessary for the determination of the college aptitude rating of students in high schools.

In other States, notably Indiana, Ohio, and Wisconsin, State-wide testing programs conducted coöperatively by the high schools, colleges, and universities are also under way. These programs generally include achievement tests in specific subjects as well as tests of general scholastic aptitude. These coöperative approaches which afford some data essential for guidance need to be extended to include an investigation of other significant facts, such as special aptitudes, family background, economic conditions, character and personality, and their bearing upon success in college.

In a few words, college and university administrative officers need to inform counselors in high schools regarding the objectives and the programs of their respective institutions, together with the requisite qualifications in terms of ability, personality, character, preparation, and financial resources of students who should be advised to enter the institution. High-school officers should advise students, within the limits of

conservative judgment based upon definite facts, as to whether they should undertake college work at all; they should further advise those whom they encourage to enter college regarding the institutions for which they are best fitted. When this procedure is adequately perfected, the problems of a college or university admissions office will be greatly simplified.

No less important than the guidance which pertains to entrance into college is that which relates to the academic progress of students. This involves, first of all, the selection of subjects and the planning of programs of study. As long as entrance requirements were rigidly prescribed in terms of units and subjects, guidance in the high school could consist in little more than seeing that the prescribed requirements were fulfilled. Likewise, as long as specific curricula were required of freshmen in college little guidance with regard to the academic program was possible. Now that entrance requirements are becoming liberalized and the college curriculum is becoming generalized, more guidance is needed. In fact, the present tendency to integrate the work of the last two years of the high school with that of the junior college reduces guidance regarding the program of studies to a single basis, viz., aiding each student to secure a well-rounded general education, at the same time incorporating in his program those courses which are prerequisite to his proposed later professional or specialized work. In other words, present trends are making the coördination of guidance at this point inevitable. For those who are not adapted to specialized college or professional work, programs must likewise be so organized that they shall receive a maximum of general education combined with technical or vocational specialization.

Numerous factors, besides the program pursued, affect academic progress. Among those most frequently mentioned by investigators are study habits; reading abilities that may be regarded as a specialized phase of study habits; motivation; employment; and health. It seems both unfortunate and

unnecessary that colleges should have to spend much time in conducting special courses in how to read and how to study. College administrative officers report, however, that "difficulty in working out and observing a study schedule unsupervised" and "classroom methods different from those previously used" constitute the two greatest needs of adjustment on the part of entering students.¹ These facts may be an indictment of the general educational procedure both in high school and in college. From the angle of the college it appears, however, that a student should achieve progressively increased independence in his study procedures so that he will need a minimum of supervision in the college. This independence in study must result from the methods of instruction employed and represents, therefore, a point at which guidance in study methods becomes an integral factor of the whole educative process. High-school instruction must develop, at least for those students who will continue their work in colleges and professional schools, the type of study procedures which will prove most effective in their later work. Advisers and instructors in the college should receive from the high school an accurate and detailed statement regarding the study habits and difficulties of individual students instead of having to rediscover these difficulties. The process of guidance may then be continued in the college in the light of the previous experience of the student. Likewise, a knowledge of the motives that have affected high-school achievement and the effect of employment upon the academic performance of the student in high school is indispensable for effective guidance in college.

Until recently, one of the most neglected factors affecting the academic progress of students has been health. Even now, the high schools that keep any careful record of student health are in the minority and the number which might provide health data re-

garding students who enter college is negligible. This whole field needs to be developed and can be approached coöperatively by administrative officers at the two educational levels.

Another very significant phase of guidance calling for closer coördination between the high school and the college involves the choice of a career. A heavy responsibility rests upon teachers and guidance officers in the high schools for the vocational guidance of the fifty per cent or more of the students who at present terminate their formal education at this level. But many of those who enter college also seek this guidance, since the type of college which they will attend is often determined by their career objective. The emphasis which has been given to vocational guidance in secondary schools indicates a recognition of this responsibility on the part of administrative officers. In view of the fact that from twenty-five to fifty per cent of the freshmen in college remain undecided regarding a career, it becomes necessary to continue their vocational guidance which has been begun in the high school. The techniques employed and the types of information utilized are not essentially different. At present, however, advisory officers in the college know little about the amount or character of the vocational guidance which freshmen have previously received. If vocational-interest tests have been employed a knowledge of the results would be helpful, if try-outs in vocations have been employed a summary of the effectiveness of each individual in various vocational experiences would be desirable, if special aptitude tests have been administered a knowledge of the scores should be available. On the other hand, advisory officers and teachers in high schools should know the number and nature of changes in vocational choices made by their graduates after entering college, should have available the information given in college regarding specific careers, and should know the techniques which are employed to supplement the guidance which they have given. In a word, vocational guidance is in theory a con-

¹ Jay Carroll Knode, *Orienting the Student in College* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930), Contributions to Education, No. 415, p. 27.

tinuous process in self-analysis and vocational exploration; in fact, it is a disconnected and uncoordinated procedure.

The guidance functions of the high school and junior college are also closely interrelated with reference to the development of personality. Character, emotional balance, personal charm, effective participation in group activities and responsibilities—all of the traits which mark a refined and well-integrated citizen—are embodied in the objectives of education. Guidance with respect to participation in the activities which develop the personal resources of each individual and make for an integrated personality is an essential part of the educative process. Inasmuch as the development of personality is continuous, the guidance related to it should also be continuous. In fact, the same lack of coordination exists between the high school and the junior college in this field as in those already discussed. The techniques for discovering the less obvious problems of personal adjustment are very inadequate, and some of the methods employed produce more conflicts than they correct. Nevertheless, there is need of a coordinated approach to the problems of personal adjustment.

If it is agreed that there is a need for a closer coordination of the guidance functions at the high-school and junior-college levels, the question logically follows, how can such coordination be effected? Numerous suggestions may present themselves, among which will undoubtedly be the four which are here proposed:

1. If the senior high school and the junior college become integrated into a new four-year educational unit, the problem of the coordination of guidance will be largely solved. An integrated curriculum and a unified teaching and administrative staff must

be accompanied by a unified guidance program.

2. If a continuation of the present plan of organization involving separate high schools and junior colleges is contemplated, a major step to closer coordination must be through cumulative records. The writer recently visited a municipal junior college in a city in which thousands of dollars had been spent in the development of a very comprehensive system of records extending from the first grade to the end of high school, yet in the junior college the administrative and advisory officers had none of the valuable information contained in the high-school records file. To make a system of records really effective, the guidance functions must of necessity be performed by individuals who will use records and will add to them essential information. Written summaries or photostatic copies of these records transmitted to the college which a student enters will make for continuity in guidance.

3. Coöperative programs of tests and measurements, such as those under way in several States previously mentioned, provide a common body of information for guidance both in high schools and in colleges. These can be greatly extended and refined so as to become more valuable for guidance purposes.

4. The numerous professional organizations of guidance officers can be coordinated by having a central clearing house, an executive secretary, and a joint program committee. Joint conferences of guidance officers in high schools and junior colleges in separate regional divisions, either State or municipal, can be scheduled periodically to provide for an exchange of information regarding the problems of guidance and the techniques which may be employed.

Needed Research in Guidance

Grayson N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The authors of this article are engaged in an extensive investigation of guidance values. Their suggestions regarding needed research in guidance are therefore both timely and important.*

W. C. R.

IT WILL NOT be possible to determine with accuracy the relative contributions of different approaches which might be utilized in attempts to improve the guidance service. Much progress has been made by the recommendation and adoption of procedures and programs that appear to individuals as desirable in the light of their experiences. Throughout the history of guidance, there has been generous support of various procedures that are believed by guidance specialists to be useful. Many of these subjective estimates were probably sound, others were probably partially or wholly in error. Reliance on subjective opinion and unsystematic observation is likely to lead to ineffective handling of many problems and to extravagant claims for the values to be expected from the different procedures.

In the opinion of the writers, progress in guidance will be accelerated by more investigation of the problems in this field and more study of the procedures that are adopted or proposed for adoption. Student problems can be handled better if the guidance worker has a thorough understanding of them. Critical examination of the evidence secured by careful research will more clearly indicate the nature of the guidance problem and point to desirable lines of procedure. Also, there is need for critical examination of the results secured from the programs and procedures used. There has been too frequently an assumption that the procedures employed in the programs now in operation will bring about a correction of the maldistributions and maladjustments which the guidance service is intended to remedy. Skepticisms of existing practices

combined with a search for better ways of meeting the problems would seem to be favorable to an improvement of the guidance service. It is important that guidance specialists be self-critical of the activities being carried on and that they make systematic attempts to secure evidence as to whether or not the values claimed for the program are being attained.

RESEARCH RECENTLY REPORTED

The results of a canvass of magazine literature during the past five years will be drawn upon in this section.¹ A total of 140 articles reporting some investigation were located in the volumes of five magazines during the period 1927 to 1932, inclusive. Twenty-six of them reported an analysis and description of some guidance practices. A larger number, 46, reported the construction and validation of improved measures of the characteristics of individuals; 22 reported investigations of the nature and extent of the variations of capacity of the individual; 17 reported a follow-up of students going into industry and into higher institutions; and an equal number, 17, reported investigations of occupational conditions and opportunities. Only 2 of the articles reported studies of the effects of some guidance activity or program of guidance. It might be noted that of the total of 461 articles analyzed dealing with guidance, 140, or less than a third, were investigative in nature.

In a canvass of studies under way or completed in 1932, report was received from guidance workers concerning 77 investigations. Over half of them (43) were being made by candidates for advanced degrees in higher institutions. Only 3 were being conducted by professors of courses in guid-

¹ Grayson N. Kefauver and Albert M. Davis, "Investigations in Guidance," *Occupations (The Vocational Guidance Magazine)*, October 1933.

ance. These studies involved a canvass of the characteristics of students and workers in different occupations (23 studies); placement and follow-up of students (15 studies); and descriptions of practices in guidance (15 studies). A much smaller number dealt with student choices of occupations and courses (5 studies); disabilities and guidance (4 studies); prediction (4 studies); and proposed programs of guidance (4 studies). Only 3 studies, 2 of which were being made for master's theses, dealt with measurement of effectiveness of guidance procedures.

Guidance is concerned with the problems of learning in the various subject fields and with the problems of behavior. Effective handling of these problems requires a knowledge of the findings of the researches in psychology that throw light on the basic causes of the disturbances under consideration and the probable desirable types of remedial treatment. Similarly, guidance is concerned with an interpretation of the conditions in the school and in society so that the individual might be helped to secure the bases for planning his training program. Guidance workers should be informed of the investigations in these related fields. Much research is needed in these areas to give the basis for effective guidance. Considerable recognition has already been given by guidance workers to studies concerned with behavior and the conditions in occupations. While the studies in the related fields may not be made by specialists in guidance, such studies are no less essential.

VALUE OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

It is generally conceded that students vary in their educational needs. A variety of subjects has been introduced to serve these different needs. It is not possible to speak generally of the value of these subjects; some students may not be able to attain a mastery sufficient to receive significant benefit. To what extent are the interests and behavior of students of different types affected by experiences in the various courses? Investigations that contribute

towards securing an answer to this question would provide the basis for a much improved guidance service.

DEFINITION OF NEED FOR GUIDANCE

Systematic analyses of the need for guidance would make two types of contribution to the guidance service. (1) They would preclude ignoring important phases of the guidance problem. Many of the guidance needs are already apparent to workers in that field. Certain of them, however, are very inadequately recognized in most programs of guidance. Improved definition of those problems would contribute towards their recognition in the programs in secondary schools. It is not improbable, either, that the changed conditions in the school and in society have created other needs for guidance that are not yet recognized. (2) Further definition of the problems of guidance would provide a more adequate basis for handling them. In fact, the treatment is likely to be ineffective if guidance specialists do not have a thorough understanding of the problems they are handling. There is a real danger in guidance work that only the external symptoms will be recognized and the basic underlying causes of the maladjustment will be ignored. Success can hardly be expected if attention is not focused on the basic factors creating the disturbance. By contributing towards the early detection and definition of guidance needs, research workers in this area can facilitate progress in providing adequate guidance service.

The creative aspects are sometimes overlooked in the discussions of the need for research. Too frequently, research is limited to testing or measuring conditions as they exist. Freeman has appropriately stressed discovery and investigation in addition to measurement. "Discovery," he states, "is the finding of new truths or new relations between things. The second type of research is invention. Invention consists in devising new ways of doing things which shall be better than the old ways. . . . We need to push fundamental research in the form of

discovery much more systematically and vigorously than we have in the past, and we need to develop invention as an independent mode of research."² There is no phase of education which presents greater need for the creative type of research whereby new ways of handling the various guidance problems are devised and evidence concerning their effectiveness is secured. Persons closely familiar with the guidance problems and possessing the insights gained through a critical analysis of the evidence obtained by investigation should be in a position to conceive new approaches that might be tried and evaluated. The recency of the introduction of the guidance service and the need for improved procedures cause creative forms of research to have large importance.

MEASUREMENTS OF EFFECTS

Many guidance procedures have been adopted because they were believed to be effective in bringing about certain desired results. Every school should take steps to determine whether or not those procedures are effective. Some procedures are doubtlessly more effective than others. Careful comparisons of different procedures should be helpful to guidance workers in deciding which procedures to adopt and to retain. Also, evidence of the effect of existing guidance procedures, if favorable, would cause those now skeptical to recognize the worth of the guidance service. If the procedures should be found to be ineffective, strenuous efforts should be put forth to secure a more adequate program. The problems dealt with in the guidance program are of such importance that one can ill afford to assume that the problems are satisfactorily handled without a careful check, and if the problems still exist, one should seek information as to whether other procedures that have been proposed are more effective. The programs in the different cities are sufficiently varied and the procedures adopted are sufficiently numerous to permit the selection of the bet-

ter programs and procedures. There is need for objective evidence to furnish the basis for such decisions.

VALUE OF INVESTIGATIONS

Specialists in guidance are somewhat in agreement as to the lines of investigation needed in the field of guidance.³ Of 37 professors of courses in guidance, 20 reported a judgment that the type of investigation most needed was the production of as complete a guidance service as possible, following a group of pupils through this guidance program, and making careful measures of results at each step of advancement. Seven professors designated the analysis and description of occupations as the type most needed. The mean rating of importance on a 5-point scale (0 to 4, inclusive) gave the two lines of investigation just mentioned the highest place. The mean rating was 3.80 for the measurement of the results of a projected program of guidance, and 3.34 for the analysis and description of occupations. Other high mean ratings were 3.26 for the measurement of the results of existing programs of guidance, 3.24 for follow-up studies of students when they leave the school, and 2.64 for measurement of characteristics of students. Description of guidance practices secured a mean rating of 2.33. Ratings of importance by 10 directors of guidance deviated chiefly from those just reported for the professors in their assignment of a higher rating to the measurement of the results of existing programs of guidance. This summary of judgments by specialists in guidance gives strong indication of the need for measures of effects of guidance service. They reflect a desire on the part of these specialists for definite evidence concerning the effectiveness of the procedures they are recommending. Interest and activity in the careful scientific examination of the problems and practices in guidance should contribute much towards the development of a more adequate guidance service.

² Frank N. Freeman, "Needed Research in the New Education," *Progressive Education*, April 1933, pp. 220-224.

³ Grayson N. Kefauver and Albert M. Davis, *op. cit.*

Facing a Vital Problem

V. M. Hardin

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Hardin is principal of the Reed Junior High School in Springfield, Missouri. In the article which follows he raises the very pertinent question of the adjustments that should be made in the curriculum and procedures of the junior high school in order to bring the activities of its pupils into a better relationship with the life about them.

A. D. W.

THE junior high school being the youngest member of the educational system has not had to face problems of long standing as has the elementary school or the senior high school. Until recently this institution was concerned primarily with two problems. One was the correlation of its work with the elementary school on the one hand and the senior high school on the other. The second problem was one of trying to satisfy the educational needs of the adolescent youth. Now we are confronted with an entirely new situation which not only affects the two problems previously mentioned but presents a third which is—What contribution can the junior high school make towards helping the individual live usefully and happily in our modern order of society?

Let us make a few observations of the peculiar situation in which we find ourselves for the sake of clarification. In the first place chaos reigns supreme in our whole economic system. Here we find ourselves in a paradoxical situation. Abundance of the necessities of life on the one hand and an exceedingly large number of individuals without these necessities on the other. The picture at first glance would seem to be that of a damming up process on one side and a drying up process on the other. Business, industrial, and governmental leaders are struggling earnestly to break down the walls which prevent the flow of these essentials through the normal channels.

Parallel with this serious situation is the unemployment problem. It is too evident to

need description of any length. We merely wish to say that we cannot expect the unemployed when reduced to the mercy of charity to maintain their self-respect for very long.

A third condition which is very apparent is the effect the giant enemy of mankind—fear—is having upon us. This disturber of our mental and emotional equilibrium is no respecter of persons but attacks individuals in all walks of life, from the bell hop to those holding the more responsible positions. The unemployed is fearful of starvation. The employed, of losing his position, the business man, his business, and so on throughout the gamut of our economic order.

The press, the Babsons, and others are endeavoring to relieve the mental anguish by giving wide publicity to all activities which give promise of returning prosperity and by making prophecies which are intended to inspire confidence.

The school cannot ignore this serious condition nor can we afford to be pessimistic. This is a time for courageous, intelligent action and not for petty groaning and complaining.

In the second place we find our social order out of step. Things have been happening so thick and fast that we have hardly had time to stop for a decent breathing spell. James Truslow Adams tells a very interesting story which illustrates our present situation.

An explorer traveled far into the interior of an uncivilized country for the purpose of making certain observations. While there he found it necessary to return to civilization within three days. He summoned his guide hurriedly and gave him specific instructions preparatory to the hurried march. The next morning the explorer, the guide, and the natives set out upon their journey. They made excellent progress the first two days. On the morning of the third day when the explorer was ready to complete the journey he found the natives sitting on the ground making no effort to move.

He asked the guide for an explanation of this strange situation. The guide replied calmly, "They are waiting for their souls to catch up." What is it that has so disturbed our social life? We have been witnessing the miracles of the machine age and participating in a certain form of benefits without making the necessary adjustments. We have allowed ourselves to drift into a kind of slavery without being aware of it. Let us review the situation.

Some of us can remember with what pride our grandmothers attended to the simple duties connected with the family lamp. The chimney was cleaned regularly, the wick trimmed, and the bowl filled with oil. Picture the family seated around the table at night struggling to share the feeble rays of light. Now all one has to do is to press a button and a whole flood of light bursts forth.

Some of us are familiar with the old family organ, a mark of luxury at one time. The effort required to produce a few musical sounds was out of proportion to the results achieved. Today by the same process by which we secure an abundance of light we are privileged to hear the master musicians of the world provided we turn the button at a time when some robot is not desperately warning us to consider our Adam's apple or offering for a small sum to read our character by means of our handwriting.

Many a school boy three or more decades ago was thrilled when he read that Magellan sailed around the world in thirty-seven months. Today our airplane friends are traveling that same distance in practically one third as many days.

When Admiral Byrd made his expedition to the South Pole *The New York Times* aided in financing this undertaking. It became necessary one day for the main office of *The Times* to communicate with one of their stations a few miles away. This could not be done because the operator at the other station had the receiver down. The main office radioed to Byrd three thousand miles away and asked him to radio back to the desired station and request the operator to put up the receiver. This was done and the whole time consumed was a little less than two minutes.

These are only a few of the many miracles of our time. The purpose of calling attention to them is not for a review of our machine age but to say that all of these changes are having a tremendous influence on our social and economic life. The sooner we take time to check up on ourselves and become masters of rather than slaves to our new situation, the sooner will we be able to work out a program in terms of greater social and economic values.

The question might be raised—What concern is all of this to the school? It is of vital concern if this agency is a worthy member of society. We are tremendously interested in doing our part in making it possible for boys and girls to live usefully and happily as members of society. We are concerned that they shall accept their full responsibility not only in the future but now and that they shall be ready to meet that responsibility in an intelligent manner. In order to do this we must reckon with our economic and social forces.

We said in the outset that a new problem is confronting us and there is no way for us to escape if we would justify our existence as an institution. Then by way of summary let us break the problem up into its component parts in order that we may see just what is involved in it. These are some of the implications.

1. What values in life shall we emphasize?
2. How may we help students realize these values?
3. How may we make our schools truly character-training institutions?
4. What subject matter possesses the richest possibilities for helping individuals to live usefully and happily in modern society?
5. How may we make the selected subject matter productive of greatest value to the individual?

These are samples of the questions we must answer if we would solve the larger problem and we are persistently trying to answer them for the best interests of society as well as for the individual.

Pupil Participation

R. H. Foley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The following article is a report on an investigation made in the Logan County Industrial Arts High School, conducted by the author, R. H. Foley. He discusses a method of evaluating the "finished product" of the high school.*

F. E. L.

WHEN WE APPROACH the problem of evaluating a product, be it that of a factory or a school, the surest method is to go to the consumer for information. If Henry Ford could have at hand the opinions of 80 to 90 per cent of the users of one year's model he would have a very fair evaluation of the merits or demerits of his product. And the manufacturer has in a measure this opinion, expressed in the volume of sales of his product, in the growth of the business, and in the number of users who return for more and more of the product.

The schools too have something which they produce for the world, its citizens; but they have no buying public. Year in and year out the school grinds out its finished or semi-finished product, regardless of the market, regardless of the fitness of that product for the place which he or she chooses to fill. Did we find it necessary to sell our product to society, and if the volume of our business were conditioned by the approval of a buying public, then surely we would have an accurate evaluation of what we have produced. In a sense, of course, the college or university must meet this condition, but it is only in the light which the years throw on the subject that these schools may form a true judgment of their process. With the elementary grades we face a different set of conditions, however, for here the "consumer" is usually one high school. Thus we have controlled conditions and uniform environment in which to observe the effects of various phases of education. So in this attempt at evaluation of student participation in the junior high school we turn to the high school that receives the majority of our students.

The conditions are briefly as follows: a

junior high school graduating from 130 to 140 students each year, an industrial-arts high school with an average enrollment of 575 and a freshman class of 150 to 170. The two schools are in different districts and the junior high school embraces just the seventh and eighth grades. Eighty to ninety per cent of the students completing the work of the eighth grade enter the freshman class of this high school.

The set-up for student participation in the junior high school is very simple. There are two divisions of the organization, that of the homeroom and the general student body. The latter is organized under a head boy and head girl who alternately preside over the student council, composed of representatives from each homeroom. This council meeting with the principal and vice principal serves as a clearing house for problems affecting the student body. The homeroom organization is similar on a smaller scale, with its officers and committees under the supervision of the homeroom teacher. It is not at all necessary to go into detail in regard to the complete organization, in the first place because it is a very typical small school plan, and secondly because the organization itself does not matter except that it is a plan for student participation in school control.

As to the factors which we would attempt to evaluate, they naturally must be those things which we wish to achieve through this medium. The commonly accepted purposes of such a program seem to be the building of citizenship and the aiding of better adjustment to various conditions and situations which the individual must meet.

The method employed was simply to go for information to the students themselves in their freshman year in high school and to the instructors of these students. Surely if subjective judgment may be used at all here is a place we must use it. At least no purely objective standard seems available. A simple questionnaire was submitted to each stu-

dent of the ninth grade who had completed his eighth-grade work in the Sterling schools. Replies came from 111, all that were in school when the investigation was made. The question follows:

1. Did you attend Sterling Junior High School through both seventh and eighth grades?
2. What positions did you hold during each of these years in the homeroom organization? List all such positions.
3. Do the same for any positions which you held in the student body.
4. Give the lowest and the highest grade received in citizenship during these years.
5. What elective positions, if any, have you held in high school?
6. In what outside activities (extracurricular) are you now taking part?
7. Do you feel that your participation in school government in junior high school has helped you (a) to make a quicker and better adjustment to high-school conditions, (b) to accept responsibilities, (c) to find a useful place in the high-school organization, (d) to maintain a higher standard of citizenship?

In the group that replied we found that 87 had had some participation in school control while 24 admitted that they had held no positions in the junior high school. In other words, if we assume no participation on the part of those students who dropped out or moved away we find that 65 per cent of the 1932 class had taken some active part in the student organization. It is with this group, then, that we are concerned. In our summary of the replies we will designate this group as P, and those not participating as NP.

In group P we find next that 18 of them held only one office while in the seventh and eighth grades, showing a somewhat unbalanced participation, these 18 representing almost entirely boys who had held some office in connection with athletics or a traffic position.

In the matter of citizenship grades the same range held in both groups, D for the lowest grade and A for the highest; however, in group P there were 61 A's received by the 87 students, while in Group NP there were but 9. The first group received 5 D's while the second had 4. Some correlation is thus shown between the participation of the student and his grades in citizenship. Pos-

sibly many would say that the causal relationship is not there, and certainly with the means at hand we cannot prove it. Possibly it is the better citizen who participates, but even granting that such is the case it must be seen to have some beneficial effect on the citizenship of all.

The next item, that of the elective offices held during the first half of the freshman year in high school, is necessarily somewhat limited since the number of elective offices available to the first-year student is quite small. However, it was found that all these offices with one exception were held by students who had participated in school control in the lower grades. This one exception was found to be a very brilliant girl of foreign parents, who had spent only half of one year in the junior high school. Though quite limited in scope there is here some evidence, rather more objective than opinion, that participation in the junior high school does help the student to make a prompt adjustment to the conditions of high school. The same thing is carried further in the replies to the next query, that is, relative to participation in extracurricular activities in high school. Of the 87 students in group P there were 67 that were engaged in some extracurricular activities, while of the 24 in the other group there were but 7 who were taking part in such activities.

In the matter of school grades we should find some rather concrete evidence as to adjustment to high-school conditions, and here we find an apparent negative correlation. In group P, 6 students report high-school grades as being higher, 47 about the same, and 33 admit of a lower average. The other group produces none with higher grades in high school, 17 with grades about the same, and 7 with lower grades than they received in junior high school. There would seem to be indicated here a danger that we have developed in the student a habit of participation which may have led a number of students to sacrifice scholastic achievement for participation in other activities. In other words, we may learn a lesson here in regard to maintaining a proper balance in the pupil's recognition of relative values.

Naturally the participating group alone reported on the last question, that is, on their opinion of the effect of their participation in junior high school on their adjustment in the senior division. To all three of the queries a large majority answered in the affirmative, 76 of these students feeling that their participation had helped them to make a quicker adjustment to high-school conditions, 81 that it had helped them to accept responsibility, 69 that it had enabled them to find a useful place in the high-school student body, and 76 that it had helped them to maintain a higher standard of citizenship. Just opinions, these last, and yet ours is a product which has a right to an opinion and ultimately our program will be judged as to its success or failure by the cumulative opinion of this product.

And so, judged from the student's reaction and what objective evidence we may find in grades and participation in activities of the high school, there is more of good than of ill in the program, while at the same time some dangers which we would do well not to overlook.

Information gleaned from the teachers of freshmen was very disappointing, not because of the disagreement of their opinion with our own notion of what it should be, but because of the lack of response and the

wide divergence of opinion expressed in regard to the same group of pupils. Only 6 of the 12 teachers of freshmen turned in replies and these were quite evenly divided in their opinions of the benefits of student participation in the junior high school. For example, one teacher reports that the students who have had an active part in the junior-high-school student organization do make better social adjustment, do accept responsibility more readily, and do show a higher standard of citizenship than do the non-participants. Another teacher who meets the same group denies all the above assertions. This divergence of opinion was typical of the group of replies turned in, so that in so far as throwing any light on the value of pupil participation was concerned, this particular attempt was valueless.

There is, however, something of value to be gained from the investigation confined to the students. Whatever our final interpretation of the results, and they are strange results that will not lend themselves to more than one interpretation, it is evident that there is a certain correlation between pupil participation in the junior high school and the adjustment of the pupil to changing environment. Also there is evident some correlation between this participation and citizenship, judged by subjective standards.

Junior-High-School Grouping

John H. Kingsley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Kingsley is assistant superintendent of schools and director of the Division of Research at Albany, New York. This paper represents the substance of an address delivered before one of the round tables of the eighth Annual Junior-High-School Conference.*

E. R. G.

WHEN the Board of Education adopted the junior-high-school plan of organization, it committed itself to certain modern educational principles which are generally accepted as fundamental in junior-high-school philosophy. Among those principles which had definite bearing upon our problem of grouping, which we accepted seriously and definitely set up as guideposts, were the following:

1. The public schools from start to finish are for *all the children of all the people*.
2. The junior high school offers curricular materials and activities suited to individual interest, aptitudes, and abilities.
3. The junior high school offers citizenship and social and character training which is needed by those of low school ability *much more than by any other group*.
4. School, while offering some deferred values, some preparation for life, *is life*. To this philosophy we have subscribed for many years.

The first three of these principles forced us to the conclusion that every boy and girl should have the advantage of the junior high school before passing the compulsory school age—an impossible condition under the commonly accepted theory that a grade represents a level of achievement. A city-wide study of that theory, through the use of standardized tests, demonstrated its falsity in fact and its injustice to all concerned. So we abandoned the practice of a century, set up grades as social units, made chronological age the determining factor, and gave the boys and girls a new deal in which no one is doomed to failure and no one is denied admission to the junior high school with his age group.

Really to attempt to do something for those boys and girls, who under the old system were retarded until forced out of school before the seventh grade, presents a tremendous challenge to the real teacher and a problem in organization for the administrator. Today our seventh-grade pupils have intelligence quotients ranging from 70 to 150; they have educational ages varying from ten to sixteen years; their interests are as many as the field is broad; in respect to age, only, do they approach any degree of homogeneity. Fifteen hundred such individuals must be grouped by some administrative procedure. The scheme which we are trying is neither new nor uncommon in any one step, though we believe it is unique in the combination and interrelation of those steps.

The first junior-high-school grouping is in the alphabetical assignment to homerooms in groups just as heterogeneous as the grade itself, social life groups in which they carry on the usual homeroom, club, and assembly activities, developing those social qualities which some authorities are afraid (reasonably or otherwise) of destroying through segregation on the basis of intelligence.

These pupils are then, without their knowledge, classified under three heads on the basis of the probable learning rate (or I.Q.) as indicated by the three intelligence tests given during the six years preceding entrance to the junior high school. These groups are designated as the first division—probable learning rate (I.Q.) above 110, the second division—probable learning rate 90-110, and the third division below 90. This is a very common grouping, but to its fatalistic implications we have always been in violent revolt. We do not believe that children should be definitely, permanently, and uniformly assigned to a level of work or a course of study, to a homeroom or a club, on the basis of the I.Q. Neither are we willing to announce to children or their parents that

they are predestined by that I.Q. to a certain class in a certain subject. We do believe that it is a fairly reliable indication of general ability to respond to traditional classroom procedure, probable learning rate, and, lacking a cumulative record of achievement, we tentatively accept the I.Q. as our standard.

May we say here that all subjects are offered in three degrees of difficulty: A—advanced requirement for those of superior ability and accomplishment in the subject; B—regular syllabus requirements for those of normal ability and normal accomplishment; and C— a difficulty level suited to the ability and achievement of those who cannot qualify for B. This C— level does not meet the requirements for Regents examinations or entering college. This explanation of the difficulty levels is printed on the report cards.

The cumulative record cards which have followed the pupils through the grades now come into play in breaking up the probable learning-rate divisions into subject-difficulty-level assignments. Each child is placed upon as high a difficulty level as his performance record in each subject warrants. Notice we said "as high." We do not put a child on a difficulty level below his probable-learning-rate level until repeated trial convinces us that success is not possible on that higher level in a particular subject, however hard he may try.

From level to level, subject by subject, pupils move freely and often, under guidance, with the ideal constantly emphasized that each pupil must work up to his ability while none are asked to do that which is impossible. This is a work-life situation.

As adults we are practically free to work at that level at which we are able to meet the demands of industry, but having found that level we are under restraint at every turn. We have little sympathy with those advocates of a freedom in school that in no way parallels real life situations. We cannot go to work when we wish nor do as we please when we get there. In fact we cannot use our own property unrestrained according to our own desires, neither may we cross the street

when and where we wish. That educational philosophy of extreme freedom may produce good anarchists but never citizens for a democracy nor even for communism. In one respect society is good to us. It does not attempt to compel us to do that which we cannot do. A real life situation that is not paralleled in heterogeneous school groups.

Joe Brown entered the junior high school last September because he had reached the age beyond which he could not stay in the elementary school. He had an I.Q. of 87 which placed him in the third ability division, below normal. His cumulative record card showed that he had consistently failed under the old organization year after year. His was a clear case of trial assignment to the C— level classes, the classes in which effort is the only standard, which do not prepare for Regents examinations. At the end of the first month Joe drew a mark of 1 (superior) in general science and his teacher recommended his transfer to the B— difficulty-level general-science class. At the end of the third month he was recommended to the A— difficulty level in general science and to the B— level in practically every other subject. Then a delighted mother called at the school to say that for the first time in his life Joe was really happy in school, was determined to do school work evenings, even refusing an invitation to the movies because he preferred to work on his science notebook. Though this is a striking case there are dozens of others just as typical of the work in rehabilitation that the Albany plan is accomplishing—the girl who became an attendance problem, staying in bed to avoid the school she hated, now reporting at her own request a half hour early each morning; the Negro, who, unable to comprehend the work of his heterogeneous group, became a serious disciplinary problem—today a happy, earnest worker on the C— level and the outstanding star of the dramatic productions.

These may well raise some questions. What right has any teacher or principal to determine that because a boy is branded a failure in the sixth grade he will be a failure in the seventh, or that, because there

was nothing of interest in the seventh grade, there could be nothing of interest in the eighth? Who fails, anyway, the pupil or the school? Administrators should face these questions fairly.

We are interested in Joe and others of his type, who under the old order never experienced the stimulation and encouragement of success, who, in a heterogeneous group, are constantly embarrassed by the achievements of others and repeatedly discouraged by recurrent failure until they develop the characteristic sullen attitude of a social outcast. It is high time that we organized our schools to assist the "school dull"—the expression Dr. Butterfield uses when he charges that our schools are organized against the school dull. But we are even more interested in that more neglected class, the "school bright," the mentally superior youth.

Here is a case, one from many we have tabulated, of a boy with a probable learning rate of 115. Through his seventh and eighth years, in a heterogeneous group, in a fine grammar-school building, he was always on the ragged edge, without one satisfactory mark. Only as a trouble maker did he shine, as shown by very poor records in reliability, coöperation, self-control, etc. When he entered his present school, in the beginning of the ninth year, though his achievement was low, he was placed on the A— difficulty level because his probable learning rate was above normal. That action and the reason for it were discussed with the boy by the guidance counselor. At the end of the second month his only low mark was in Latin which was "below average" but not "failure." Since that time he has had marks of "superior" and "above average" every time in every subject.

He is a leader in homeroom and school activities, while his citizenship ratings are uniformly "superior." Our plan of grouping may not be entitled to all the credit, but no other plan got such results.

We know that "it takes more than one swallow to make a summer," but the first bluebird brings the glad tidings that the drab and dreary winter is about over. We hope we are on the right track in our attempts to devise for the superior child a curriculum which in content and method of presentation will offer as great a challenge as that formerly offered the average or slow. A course of study which will stimulate him to work to full capacity upon subject matter which is worth while for him, in a group of approximately his own age, interest, aptitude, and ability. The public school can never produce great leaders by expending her energies upon those whose native endowment precludes their becoming great in its true sense. Some one has said—"Europe produces great statesmen while America produces great politicians." There may be no relationship, but the fact that European education is definitely planned for the superior, the very group which American education in its mass production has left to shift for itself, seems significant.

Our problems are not solved. Those in the process of solution as here enumerated have produced so many new ones that there is no end in sight. Yet it may be said that ours is a professional job, as it never could be under the old order. No more dull routine, no more rule of precedent, but technical, professional, pedagogical, individual problems, each a challenge to the intelligence and training which is ours. We must not fail!

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Pupil Self-Direction

Ralph M. Faust

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Ralph W. Faust is principal of the Kingsford Park Junior High School, Oswego, New York. Mr. Faust and Mr. Turney, principal of the Fitzhugh Park Junior High School, are doing much to help their boys and girls to become capable, self-directive school citizens.*

H. H. V. C.

THE ADMINISTRATION of the modern junior-high-school organization presents a real opportunity for pupils to grow in an environment where a maximum of self-direction may be practised in accordance with their ability. In evaluating the work of the junior high school in this community, it is felt that the most important service it has rendered is that of developing the proper pupil attitude towards the school society. Progress in pupil self-direction has been made in proportion as the school body has developed this attitude. Thinking in terms of the social group, the factor of social approval comes to play a vital part in the school life of boys and girls. The method has been to provide, as far as possible, life-situation environments where pupils share in the directing of their vicarious school experiences, and receive the sympathetic guidance of which they are in constant need at this period of their adolescent life. The organization and administration of this type of school in terms of the whole child has made possible an understanding of the pupil which has proved of value in stimulating his self-direction. The school community, homeroom, library, assembly, clubs, parties, the athletic activities all have gone hand in hand with teacher-pupil relationship in the classroom towards the end of efficient social living.

Curriculum adjustments which provide for a differentiated school program have opened opportunities for pupils where experience may be gained and choices made more intelligent. The addition of general language, general science, general shop, exploratory mathematics, homemaking, guid-

ance, civics, introduction to business, library instruction, music and art, etc., have furnished the citizenship, self-development, appreciation, and vocational objectives of the school. They point the way for work ahead and enable the pupil to direct himself more intelligently.

More and more the teaching-learning process becomes of the nature of a coöperative affair between teacher and pupil. The good teacher furnishes the stimulus for learning activities of a purposeful nature. The classroom becomes a laboratory where pupils are orientated in a type of work that requires their self-direction in collection and classification of materials. A goal is set up for the purpose of measuring the progress of the group, and an activity is completed which has provided many opportunities for pupil initiative and coöperation. An example will illustrate. In a 7B English class the pupils, on the suggestion of the teacher, decided they would accomplish one worth-while activity that term. It was decided to make a book of original stories and poems. Much discussion took place as to the nature of such an activity, the procedure to be followed, and what was to be done with the project. The class worked up a group poem. The whole procedure was very informal so that it would not become tedious but be more like a game of making up. Not every one was expected to submit any particular subject at any time, but all were encouraged to use their spare moments in writing something. Each pupil who wrote a bit brought it to class where it was read and commented on. Gradually the class began to take pride in achieving something, even if only a few lines. More contributions increased as interest developed, until the group decided that all should contribute something. Pupils began to take charge themselves and the realization that they were actually doing it and that it was their responsibility soon made itself felt. The activity was completed

with a great deal of pride, and presented to the school library as a contribution to the literature of the school.

Of fundamental importance in evaluating our junior high schools is the value of the school community and its various activities, which help to produce situations wherein boys and girls who are eager to become self-directive may learn to function as useful individuals in the life of their school society.

When the pupil enters the seventh grade he becomes a member of the school community, a recognized part of the junior-high-school organization. As a member of the student organization he is extended the privileges and charged with the responsibilities of his new status. Through various avenues he learns about and becomes an active participant in this many-sided organization. He is assigned to a homeroom and there he learns gradually the various phases of his composite school life, works out his problems, makes his adjustments, and renders his services under the guidance of his homeroom teacher. His various interests and activities, whether in the classroom, in the shop, in the library, or at the party are observed by sponsors with the objective of helping the student to acquire knowledge and power and to develop interests, habits, and attitudes which will help him to make right choices.

Orientation classes are given information regarding the routine of the school and are assisted in solving their problems and making adjustments—personal, curricular, and social. They are taught some basic principles of how to study effectively, how to budget their time, and how to be successful in school. They are also taught how to participate in school control and through discussion desirable traits, attitudes, and habits are emphasized. (Examples: How to conduct one's self in auditorium, in corridors, in the library, outside of school; attitude towards students in charge of groups such as homeroom presidents, safety patrols, the library staff, and student leaders in social affairs.)

When students are completing the work of the eighth year, the (1) curricula and

courses offered in the ninth year are explained. (2) A few typical occupations are discussed in order to help students choose their courses. In these discussions, attention is given to educational requirements, physical requirements, character requirements, and advantages and disadvantages of the occupation or job. The contents of a few books bearing on vocations are reviewed, and students are encouraged to consult the books and magazines in our library which will increase their information about occupations and help them to make right choices. Special assistance is given by the teacher-librarian and student librarians to those who have difficulty in finding material which they desire. (3) The reading of biographies of successful men and women is a definite part of this course. The students choose their own books but they are directed to read them for the purpose of finding out what factors contributed to the success of the men and women selected. (4) Further reading and discussions with persons outside the school as well as with members of their families are encouraged.

As this period of his junior-high-school life, the student is probably most frequently confronted with the problem of deciding what activities to participate in. Since the number of activities in which the student may take part is limited, and since choosing one at this time may put an end to aspirations in another field, the choice is often difficult to make. Through conferences, the pupil is led by questioning and discussion to analyze his own thoughts and feelings, to see more clearly the possibilities in each field, and to decide for himself on an intelligent basis the activity in which he wishes to continue. A boy who chooses to be a safety-patrol instead of a homeroom president loses the opportunity of being a member of the student council and possibly a candidate for school vice president. A girl who chooses to be assistant librarian may possibly lose the opportunity of becoming school secretary-treasurer.

In the ninth grade, students are expected to exercise all the rights and privileges and

to assume all the responsibilities and duties of students and school citizens. They are made conscious of their position of leadership because of seniority and encouraged to suggest and initiate things which will benefit the school and its students or improve its school spirit. They are shown how they can contribute by assuming the rôle of "big brother" or "big sister." They are allowed the greatest amount of freedom in their homeroom meetings and almost complete responsibility is placed on them for the successful conduct of their affairs. The officers are expected to perform the duties imposed on them, the president is charged with the responsibility of seeing that chairmen of committees are performing their functions, and the chairmen in turn are expected to see that the committees are performing theirs.

On a recent occasion the 9A homeroom adviser was attending a luncheon in honor of Mr. Van Cott, who was visiting one of our junior high schools. During her absence the time for holding the homeroom meeting arrived and the president conducted the meeting as usual according to parliamentary procedure. Under the head of new business one of the members of the class suggested that a ninth-grade party be held, subject to the approval of the principal. Discussion arose as to the type of party, the time for holding it, how much money would be needed, how it was to be raised, and who was to be charged with the responsibility for making plans. Most of these plans were decided tentatively before the adviser returned. Her advice and the results of her experience with similar affairs were asked and after the next homeroom meeting plans were under way for raising money by means of an afternoon dance and candy sale. A subcommittee carried on negotiations for an orchestra. Other subcommittees were the program, refreshments, decorations, and social. These students are getting real experience in arranging social affairs and conducting them according to recognized standards.

The ninth-grade student is made to feel his personal responsibility. He is taught to budget his time. The regular routine day of

individual students is charted as a class exercise, and all are urged to budget their own time. By keeping individual scholarship graphs and class graphs and by discussing causes of failure and means of improvement, students are enabled to raise their own standards. Students who show special aptitude or ability in certain fields are shown the advantage of taking elective work in those fields. Individual conferences are held with students who are failing, and classroom teachers are consulted to determine the cause and the best means of improvement. If a change of course seems desirable, parents are interviewed and they and the student make the choice.

The student council consists of the school president, vice president, and secretary-treasurer; presidents and vice presidents of homerooms; and special representatives from service groups in the school. These are the groups which formulate the policies of the student organization and coördinate all units. Its meetings are conducted according to parliamentary procedure, the usefulness of which our students now recognize. The council helps to make rules for the school. Its members bring problems from their units to the council. There they are discussed and a solution made when possible. The members learn to speak with ease before a group. They initiate projects and offer suggestions of helpfulness to others in their enterprises. They learn desirable attitudes towards rules, officers, teachers, the principal, and the school. They learn to exercise good and fair judgment in voting and in the solution of problems. They develop civic responsibility and a desire to render service. They have first-hand experience in dealing with people in real life situations.

The auditorium activities of the junior-high-school boy and girl are closely tied up with the whole school organization. In meetings of the school community, in original programs and pageants worked up by teacher-pupil coöperation, and in dramatics, pupils have the experience of working together for definite results. The values growing out of such enterprises are self-evident. Students

learn through their own experience that it is impossible to present a successful program unless every one does his work without failure. Thus the lessons of interdependence and self-reliance come to mean something. Recently one of our schools made a whole term project of the history of our community which culminated in a public performance of a pageant, "The Story of Oswego," in which pupils shared in the writing, making of scenery, the making of costumes, and its production. Over seven hundred pupils shared in this experience.

The elective feature of joining clubs offers another example of pupils' choice along lines of his interest. Successful participation in these school activities often not only enables a pupil to find his interests but also helps him decide upon an avocation or even a vocation for life. Possibly student activities afford the one most effective means of training youth for loyal participation in the affairs of everyday life.

Finally, the school libraries furnish an example of student self-direction, and possibly a vocational objective of our boys and girls. The library is administered by student librarians under the direction of a teacher-librarian. Each girl is assigned definite duties to perform during the periods in which she is in charge. These duties include dusting the library, proper arrangement of books on the shelves, covering magazines, care of the bulletin board, and mending books. This teaches the girls not only the proper care of a library but also the necessity of neatness and orderliness in life if one is to appear attractive to one's associates.

The "library staff," as these girls become known to the school, meet with both the teacher-librarian and the city supervising librarian. The teacher-librarian instructs them in the general method of running the library. She discusses with them and tries to arrive at the best solution of all problems the girls meet while in charge of the library. One of the most frequent problems discussed is what to do with the boy or girl who refuses to recognize the student librarian and coöperate with her. The supervising librarian gives

definite instruction about books and their care. This enables these girls to learn how to care for their own books and those of others.

They also learn the general arrangement of a library under the Dewey Decimal Classification, how to use books and where to find them. They will later be able to transfer this knowledge gained in a small library to much larger libraries that they will come in contact with as they continue on through their school life. Some girls become very apt at this. We have seen one girl in particular at the beginning of the term, who was uncertain even of the alphabet, become so interested in the correct position of books on the shelves that after thirteen weeks of practice she has become most proficient in placing books back in their proper places and accomplishes this twice as rapidly as any other girl on the staff. These girls are also given a definite knowledge of how to use the card catalogue. This will later help them in finding any book they may need in collecting a bibliography on any subject or in the writing of a long article in which the use of many reference books will be involved. They not only have gained this knowledge themselves but impart it to other students and aid them in becoming familiar with the arrangement of the library.

Although the number of girls who assist in the library is only a small part of the total number of girls in the school, it gives these girls a chance to accept or reject library work as their life's work because they are connected closely enough with general library routine to learn all the phases connected with it. So far one girl has definitely selected it as her vocation and is planning to enter a library school in 1934. Two others are seriously considering it and several at least thinking about it.

The members of the library staff not only gain important knowledge that tends towards self-direction but also the whole student body in perhaps a lesser degree. The students must to some extent depend upon their own ability to find the material they need in the library. The student librarians in one term

become familiar with only a small portion of material in the library and can aid the other students only so far as their knowledge extends. Beyond that the student must find for himself what he needs and in finding it he naturally becomes familiar with not only the material in the library but he also learns to be self-sufficient in his needs. Thus the library really becomes an intrinsic part in the lives of some of our students and trains them not only in proficiency in run-

ning a library but perhaps what is of much greater importance, it develops in them poise in meeting people and a general fund of knowledge concerning books in general which will be of great value to them later in life.

The reaction of many of our parents indicates that they are pleased that our pupils stay on for a ninth year before going on with the work of the succeeding years of their schooling.

The Guidance Period

Asa C. Tenney

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Can it be true that guidance is "taught" to the accompaniment of the teacher behavior that Asa C. Tenney describes in the article that follows? His evidence is convincing and his conclusions seem to us a bit difficult to controvert.*

A. D. W.

FOR some years our entire educational system has been criticized for not "doing something" to lessen the number of delinquencies of minors. The rising tide of law-breaking raised the pitch of this cry almost to hysteria. The schools, it had been pointed out, were the bulwark of the nation, but the dike had sprung a leak. Perhaps it had always leaked. In any case, the junior high school rushed in with all the impetuosity of youth and offered to save the country. And this, of course, was highly laudable. But since we are concerned, both as potential victims and as participating rescuers, it may be worth a moment to consider how this tide stemming is being effected.

The theory behind the guidance program holds that:

1. Children should be trained for citizenship
2. We should all work together for the good of mankind
3. Politeness pays
4. Loyalty is a fine thing
5. An educated rascal is worse than an illiterate rascal

So far as I know, these axioms have never been successfully controverted—at least in educational circles—so it would seem to remain only to find suitable methods for functionalizing them. It does. And it will continue to remain a problem so long as guidance continues to be "taught," as at present, as a subject in the curriculum.

Defenders of this set-up may point out that banalities such as these need repetition. But do they? Do children need to phrase definitions of courtesy and courage and co-

operation, or do they need to *become* courteous and courageous and mutually helpful? I think it cannot be seriously contended that character is a thing to be taught, like arithmetic, with or without a book, in a forty-five minute period. And with marks! Does the fact that a child knows all the answers make him a good citizen? I knew one boy who was the pride of the faculty because of his unusually ready answers to all guidance questions. He never made a mistake—but he habitually broke every rule he recited and had to be sent to the reformatory while he was still in the seventh grade.

In practice, guidance in the junior high school is a daily onslaught against the natural depravity of youth. In this campaign the homeroom teacher is the field officer under remote control from the principal's office. The chief of staff is apt to be a principal's assistant known as the guidance expert. She is usually a lady of unimpeachable character who issues bulletins for the guidance of the homeroom teacher in guiding her children.

This course in half-baked ethics may be "dished up" in two ways—both of them bad. In the first, the homeroom consists of pupils of the same educational age. In this case there may be a progressive course in guidance—with marks, of course. Instead of studying courtesy one year, cooperation another, and so forth, there is an attempt to progress, for example, from cases where it is easy to tell the truth (in the seventh year) to cases where it is all but impossible (in the ninth year.)

I once taught in a school which used a different method. Pupils of all ages were found in the same homeroom, the idea being to let the young ones learn from the older. Since the same bulletins were used year after year, it is not surprising that many of the pupils were satiated—not to say gorged—with this unappetizing moral pabulum long before commencement. At the out-

set, when I dutifully took up Bulletin No. 1, labeled "Courtesy," the class protested with one voice that they had already studied courtesy the year before. And indeed they knew all the answers by heart.

It is still exceedingly difficult to convince people that morality cannot be taught directly. Any time spent in the attempt is wasted. "If to do were as easy as to know what were good to do," children had been cherubs and grown people perfect men and women. Perhaps it is because teaching "to do" is also more difficult than teaching "what were good to do" that the guidance program consists, in many schools, of a daily harangue by the homeroom teacher supplemented by a formal catechism of the bored pupils. When a preacher announces as his subject, "Does Sin Pay?" most of his flock can wait until next Sunday to find what the good man will decide. Similarly, when the homeroom teacher asks, "Why should we be loyal?" any child with an I.Q. of more than sixty has the answers all ready.

Guidance "recitations" are conducted by the question-and-answer method, the theory being that this provides for pupil participation. At the risk of becoming tedious, let me recall, as well as I can remember, a guidance period I witnessed. The subject was coöperation and the principal was present as a visitor.

TEACHER: Just what is meant by coöperation? (*A dozen hands shoot up.*) All right, Minnie.

MINNIE: Coöperation is working for the common welfare.

TEACHER (*beaming*): Excellent. Now who can tell me how we can all coöperate? (*No response*)

TEACHER (*raising her voice*): Joseph, will you put that book away and pay attention? (*Then with a flash of inspiration*): Is that your idea of coöperation? (*Joseph closes his book sulkily.*)

TEACHER (*continuing*): I don't believe you know what coöperation means. (*Joseph keeps his eyes on his desk, smiles in embarrassment.*)

TEACHER: Very well, Joseph, what is coöperation?

JOSEPH (*sulkily*): Coöperation is working for the common welfare.

TEACHER (*wearily*): Joseph, do stand up when you recite. Didn't we have a bulletin on courtesy last week?

JOSEPH (*gets to his feet*): Coöperation is working for the common welfare.

PRINCIPAL (*interposing*): How can you work for the common welfare, Joseph?

JOSEPH: I don't know.

PRINCIPAL (*in assumed surprise*): What? You don't know! Who can tell this young men how he can coöperate.

MINNIE (*giggling*): By paying attention.

PRINCIPAL: Why certainly. Now Joseph, how can you coöperate?

JOSEPH: By standing up and paying attention.

PRINCIPAL: That will do. Now—excuse me, Miss So-and-so. (*Here he bows to show that he is courteous.*) Who can tell me what is meant by the common welfare? (*The class seems to feel that this is an unfair question. They shift uneasily in their seats.*)

TEACHER: Suppose you were on the football team. (*Several hands go up. Everybody knows the one about the football team.*) Very well, Rose.

ROSE: A football team wouldn't get anywhere if the players didn't coöperate. Every player ought to think only of the team and not of himself. (*Then, sentimentously*): Lots of players have given their lives for their school. (*Joseph, meanwhile, has gone back to his book. Other pupils are restless, some drawing pictures on their desks.*)

PRINCIPAL: Excuse me, Miss So-and-so. (*Then angrily*): I want every one paying attention, not defacing school property. This is the most important period of the day. Guidance is a subject for you to study just like any other subject, only more important. It is the most important subject of the day. Let me tell you something—

JOSEPH: Wait a minute. Let us tell you something. The way you put this guidance stuff out to us, it's a lot of tripe. If you want us to be courteous, give us an example of courtesy. When you go to a boring lecture, does anybody bawl you out for not paying attention? If you want us to coöperate, give us something to do. Why not even try to coöperate with us?

Alas, candor compels me to confess that Joseph said no such thing. He said nothing, in fact. He had been too well squelched for eight years. I am not even sure I can say it for him.

Character building must be a concomitant goal, I believe, and not a direct one; or, if it is direct one, it must be the aim of an activities program, in school and out, which lasts from the time the school first gets its hands on a child until it passes him into the world. Whatever the program finally worked out, guidance, as a subject to be studied, should be abolished. And yet—I know of many, many schools where coöperation and citizenship are still merely *talked about*.

Straws in the Educational Wind

How Interest Can Be Held. A few civic principles are extremely important for teaching in every school: short ballot, civil-service reform, executive budget, responsible leadership. Everyone should be taught respect for organized coöperation in government and a willingness to do his part. Attention must be captured, interest maintained. Nothing is surer than that we learn to do by doing. Pupil share in school government is an essential method. Prof. Edgar Dawson. *Organized Self-government.* 1920.

Self-Government in School. Active participation in government is the most effective means of fixing the ideals. Without it, the real understanding of our republic can never be satisfactory. The important thing is the motive. Frederick Bolton. *Adolescent Education.* 1931.

A Study of Government As It Really Is. There should be in every high school a department of citizenship. In it should be grouped those enterprises through which an adolescent can contribute to the affairs of his town, state, country, and planet. This does not mean the traditional civics of the curriculum. It means a study of government as it actually goes on in city councils, county-court houses, and national assemblies. Politics is mainly a matter of intense human concern. It is best known by entering into campaigns, dealing with leaders, and, perhaps, occasionally, getting fingers burned. These are not primarily matters for orations. Prof. Goodwin Watson. *The World Tomorrow.* Oct., 1930.

A List of Essentials. A sympathetic and intelligent principal and staff, a teacher sponsor and adviser, real responsibility put on students, real problems of their own to settle by discussions and resolutions, a duty to get and maintain an efficient school, a realization that this sort of duty is in demand outside—these things succeed. Lillian Wyman. *Student Responsibility.* 1930.

Pigeonholing the Civic Purpose. A group of teachers at the Los Angeles convention of the National Education Association, June 29, 1931, unanimously recommended to their resolutions committee that it ask the Association to adopt this: "Resolved that it be recommended to American school boards the adoption of a rule that no diploma be issued for graduation from any public school unless the recipient is deemed qualified by civic conduct and knowledge of American institutions and principles to show promise of worthy citizenship."

Learning by Real Problems. Civics is not to be taught by the traditional reciting to the teacher, but by real problems, actual investigations and live discussions of public questions, attendance at meetings of the common council, political gatherings, etc., and by coöperative self-government in school under their own constitutions, laws, and officers. A school is no make-believe community. Professor James B. Edmonson, University of Michigan. *Citizenship.* 1931.

Must Practice Citizenship. The most effective way to develop qualities of citizenship is not found in textbooks but in life situations in the school itself. Payson Smith, Massachusetts Commissioner of Education. Tenth Year Book, National Assn. Elem. School Principals. 1931.

Any Principal Can Have It. Any principal who really wants a school that gives actual training in self-government has only to drop a hint here and there among the bright members of his flock. "If you want it, ask for it. Get up your own petition and address it to me." He can lay this before the teachers. Some are sure to be willing to try it. Let the others alone. They'll come around in time if they aren't crowded. John O. Chewning, at Nat. Ed. Assn. 1931.

Danger Exaggerated. The risk in teaching honesty in politics is more imaginary than real. In the seven educational positions I have held I promoted such teaching and was damaged only in Chicago. Mayor Hylan's threat of getting me out for failure to nominate his cousin was offset by decent officials. Mayor Thompson's board dismissed me for protest against wholesale filling of positions by friends of spoilsmen but a court pronounced the discharge illegal. A movement underway to unite superintendents against discharge by corrupt politicians is gaining strength. The duty of educational leadership in purifying politics has no decent argument against it.

No Leadership. The school reflects the spirit of its town. If citizens are indifferent to political crookedness why should the school worry?—Philadelphia.

A Jolt. You know why. Everybody knows why. Education never accepted the political revolutions of '76 and '87 except as a theme to talk about. The schools must have either a slow persuasion or a swift, hard jolt to get them to attempt their main duty.—Washington.

Book Reviews

A Teacher's Guide Book to the Activity Program, by ROBERT HILL LANE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 257 pages.

The author gives a clear and sane conception of just what constitutes an activity program through units of work. The exceptional leadership which he has demonstrated in modernizing the elementary-school practices in a large city school system has equipped him for the practical contribution that this book makes. His detailed reports of visits to twenty-two of his classroom teachers is ample evidence of the influence of his supervision in informalizing the work in the classroom.

In addition to setting up the steps to be taken in introducing an activity curriculum, the writer has given in some detail three types of units of work and criticized the same. He likewise presents simple and workable solutions to problems attending the daily program that result from the introduction of the activity curriculum. The concluding chapter summarizes by means of a check list the significant features in the activity program.

The volume under review is one of those few books indispensable to every elementary and junior-high-school library. The reviewer predicts that Lane's contribution will have a very wholesome and stabilizing effect upon the activity-curriculum movement in this country.

F.E.L.

Teaching Geography by Problems, by E. EHRLICH SMITH. New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1931, \$1.50.

With the recrudescence of interest in geography, of which the forthcoming Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education is an indication, renewed attention will be paid to books on geography method even though published a decade ago. Part I of Mr. Smith's book deals with present practices in class work, the "new" geography—subordination of political to regional factors—and the problem topic, project problem, and literary modes of presentation. Part II illustrates the problem method by examples. It includes a chapter on "Some New Countries of Europe." P.W.L.C.

The Case Method of Instruction, edited by CECIL E. FRASER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., ix+165 pages, \$2.00.

This brief and effective exposition of the use of the case method of instruction in business education opens with four interesting chapters dealing with the educational principles that led to the

adoption of the case method instead of the lecture method in the Harvard School of Business Administration. These chapters are well worth the attention of educators whose interests lie in other fields than business education.

It is pointed out that there are only two essentially different theories of education. The first theory is based on the assumption that education should consist of a survey of the important facts accumulated by man through the ages. The assumption underlying the other method is that education must afford training to enable the individual to meet in action the problems arising out of the new situations of an ever changing environment. The use of cases as the basis of teaching presumes a confidence in the second of these theories. The purpose of education is to teach men to think in the presence of new situations.

The chapters following the first four deal with the use of cases in specific phases of business education. Marketing, finance, business statistics, accounting, and industrial management are taken up in turn and are followed by chapters dealing with various problems involved in the organization of courses of study according to the case method.

The book is effectively and concisely written and has value for those interested in education from many points of view.

A.D.W.

My Health Habits, by CHARLOTTE TOWNSEND WHITCOMB, JOHN H. BEVERIDGE, and EVELYN ESTELLE TOWNSEND. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1932.

Four books for the lower grades, with *Our Health Habits* optional for the teacher. A series which makes good health desirable. Instead of saying "don't do this" and "don't do that," they surround the subject with a vital, dynamic interest which makes good health so appealing that pupils take to it as they would to some fascinating pastime. Good health is made attractive, and the formation of essential habits which promote it is made an enjoyable experience. Care of the teeth, cleanliness, and eating of proper foods are made habitual through a program which keeps the child happily pursuing a definite health goal.

F. E. L.

Education for Home and Family. Washington: The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1931, 245 pages, \$2.00.

This volume contains the discussions of the first joint national conference on parent education called by Commissioner of Education W. J. Coop-

er, under the auspices of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and the Office of Education, and held at Hot Springs, Arkansas, May 1-2, 1931. Part I contains addresses on the Changing backgrounds of Home and Family Life; Part II, Parent Education Problems at Different Levels; Part III, Professional Training of Leaders in Parent Education; and Part IV, Utilizing Forces for Parent Education. Each part contains suggestions for study and discussion. The volume closes with a summary of conference papers by Assistant Commissioner Bess Goodykoontz.

When in 1917 Floyd Dell forecast the informal community character of public education in 1947, in "Were You Ever a Child?" his conception seemed to most people decidedly bizarre. Today, however, most forward-looking educators are coming to realize that the child's education is conditioned far more by his home and community life than it is by the school. If, therefore, he is to be helped to grow in desirable ways, the child must find in his out-of-school life a constructive program of incentives, opportunities, and rewards.

The volume here reviewed reflects a most promising attempt to translate into action not only

the White House Conference on Child Welfare, but also the pious hopes of social philosophers and the aspirations of alert school leaders.

P.W.L.C.

A Study of Homogeneous Grouping, by Marvin Y. Burr. Contributions to Education No. 457. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, ix + 69 pages, \$1.50.

This study is an attempt to evaluate the widespread practice of homogeneous grouping. It considers individual variations and the teaching problem. Homogeneous groups in the same grade are compared with each other in achievement.

The investigator found that there is great overlapping of achievements of groups, that if groups are made nonoverlapping in achievement in one subject or even in one phase of a subject, they overlap in other subjects or in other phases of the same subject. Indeed, individual pupils are not themselves homogeneous in physical or mental traits nor in achievement in school subjects.

The author thus discovered by scientific means what has all along been known as a matter of experience and general observation. In doing so, it has real value. Unfortunately, the results have been seized upon as a basis for attack on homogeneous grouping as a practice. But in many schools the practice of homogeneous grouping is undertaken in full recognition of the facts, which are here "scientifically" established. In these schools, the practice is justified (or is not justified) on quite different grounds. P.W.L.C.

The Art of Educational Research, by HAROLD N. ABELSON. Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1933, xii + 332 pages, \$2.00.

A very sane treatment of the research methods as applied to our educational problems. The author's attitude towards education which is set forth in the first of the book promises a broad interpretation and use of research. He takes the position that education is an art rather than a science, and maintains that the use of scientific methods and findings in solving educational problems reveals that there may be science in education but no science of education.

The book contains nineteen chapters of which nine are given over to the treatment of the various applications of the causal method. Of the remaining chapters, three deal with a general treatment of research and its problems, and one each with the integrative methods, the descriptive method, sociodescriptive methods, psychodescriptive methods, speculation method, evaluative method, and the constructive method. The last chapter of the book treats communication, organization, and development of research.

ANNOUNCEMENT

The National Geographic Society announces that publication of its weekly *Geographic News Bulletins* for teachers will be resumed early in October.

These bulletins are issued weekly, five bulletins to the weekly set, for thirty weeks of the school year. They embody pertinent facts for classroom use from the stream of geographic information that pours into the Society's headquarters. The bulletins are illustrated from the Society's extensive file of geographic photographs.

Teachers are requested to apply early for the number of these bulletins desired. They are obtainable only by teachers. They are issued as a service, not for financial profit, by the National Geographic Society as a part of its program to diffuse geographic information. They give timely information about boundary changes, geographic developments, and world progress in other lands. Applications should be accompanied by twenty-five cents to cover the mailing cost of the bulletins for the school year.

Individuals who are seeking problems for research together with suggested methods of treatment will find this a most valuable volume. Extensive references are found at the close of each chapter, together with a twelve-page bibliography coming before the index.

E. R. G.

Along the Way in High School. "The Home Room Guide." Reading, Pennsylvania: Department of Guidance, Senior High School, 1932.

Two attractive pamphlets have been prepared for the information and inspiration of the pupils, teachers, and parents of the Reading Senior High School's community. The first, directed to the homeroom teachers, provides suggestive programs for the homeroom guidance hours throughout the year under such titles as "Extracurricular Clubs," "Duties and Necessary Qualifications of Homeroom Officers," "Know Your School," "Know Your State," "The Fields of Vocations," "Books," "Wholesome Attitudes," and "Special Celebrations." Most of the programs are assigned to specific grades; a few are planned for all grades.

The second volume, which includes the material contained in the first somewhat elaborated, is addressed to the pupils. It contains information regarding commencement, music, publications, health, athletics, and student council, and suggestions for special celebrations.

These two books reflect the kind of leadership that every high-school department of guidance should exemplify. Since guidance is one very important function of all true education it cannot be carried on apart from the activities of homeroom and classroom teachers and pupils. These volumes and the spirit they reflect should do much to make of the guidance functions an explicit aspect of school living.

P.W.L.C.

The Expansion of Secondary Education.

Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Edited by I. L. KANDEL, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, xiv + 544 pages. \$3.30.

This yearbook consists of explanations of the status of secondary education in fifteen countries, each section being contributed by a specialist from the country concerned. The expansion of secondary education is being delayed in all countries, partly because of the burdens of taxation and partly because of the uncertainties of its implications.

What is democratic secondary education? As it to be expected, opinions differ. Traditional stand-

ards by which education is judged to be secondary vary from the paradoxical opinion of American progressive schoolmen, who say in effect that secondary education is found in a differentiated elementary school for adolescents, to the Hungarian and Polish concepts that secondary education in these countries "has always been democratic but that parents have been unable to avail themselves of the opportunities open for their children because of inability to bear the costs of their education and of their maintenance while in school." In England there are fears that, if all children up to fifteen attend schools, substitutes for secondary education rather than genuine differentiated forms of it will be provided.

As one finishes reading this interesting volume, he may feel, with the reviewer, that the chief difference among those responsible for secondary education in the countries represented lies in the degrees or types of bewilderment implicit in every one of the contributions—including, in one respect, the very able section written by Dr. Harold F. Clark, who seeks to justify selection by school officers of pupils who are fitted for special activities—a desirable but impossible condition. Parents who wish their children to study any subjects will successfully demand that they be permitted to do so. In a democracy the right to be wrong is inviolable.

P.W.L.C.

Self-Expression in Speech, by Isabelle P.

Coffin and Elizabeth Avery. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1933, x + 323 pages.

Self-Expression in Speech is an attempt to provide high-school students with a textbook in oral English. The book, for the most part, is written in a very readable style for high-school students. The exercises are valuable and the questions at the ends of the chapters are thought provoking and should furnish stimulating material for group discussion.

The arrangement of chapters seems to this reviewer to be somewhat illogical. The chapter entitled *First Steps in Voice Improvement*, for example, might very well precede the chapters on group discussion and public speaking. Teachers using the book, however, may use their own discretion about the arrangement of material. The discrepancies in the phonetic alphabet which appear in the Avery, Dorsey, Sickles book, *First Principles of Speech Training*, a companion volume for colleges, appear in this volume. The new written symbol for the voiced sound of th, for example, is omitted; and the upright r is still used instead of the inverted form.

The selections in oral reading are well chosen and the bibliography should be valuable for teachers although some of it may be too advanced for high-school students.

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An Appreciation



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The World and Its People (for the 4th grade), *Our Country and American Neighbors* (for the 5th grade), *Our Neighbors Across the Seas* (for the 6th grade), by RICHARD ELWOOD DODGE and EARL EMMETT LACKEY; *The United States in the Modern World* (for the 7th grade), by W. R. McCONNELL. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1932.

This four-book geography series combines activities, type studies, story units, and studies of continental regions and of economic world relationships which help pupils to understand geography better and enjoy it more. The first book deals with travel geography in which pupils are taken on imaginative journeys to distant lands. Thus by means of contrast and comparison they learn how environmental conditions affect human activities. The second and third books deal with our neighbors in America and across the seas. The fourth book gives an economic treatment of the United States in relation to other countries of the world. Maps, easy to read and interpret, convey but one kind of information at a time. Pictures depict environmental conditions and related human activities. Legends below the pictures ask questions, tell stories, amplify the text. Absorbing activities provide amply for learning by doing. Tests, questions, story-telling contests, and problems stimulate interest, encourage mastery. Vocabulary and sentence structure are carefully adjusted to ability, ensuring easy reading and ready interpretation of geographical relationships.

Younger Poets, An anthology of American secondary-school verse, edited by Nellie B. Sergeant. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1932, xii + 436 pages, \$2.00.

Ever since it was first demonstrated that adolescents could write really fine poetry, there has been a need for just such an anthology as this. Miss Sergeant has collected the best of such works from all over the country and this book is the result. It should have a definite place in any secondary-school English course which touches on modern poetry on its intrinsic value alone. But it has a value beyond that, in that the students will see here concrete evidence of the sort of thing that is being done by boys and girls of their own age and will perhaps be inspired thereby to try their own hands at it.

For those students who become really interested in the subject, there is an introduction devoted to the mechanics of versification including descriptions of all the regular verse forms as well as several less common French and Japanese forms. There are also sections on rhythm, rhyme, free verse, and the like.

This book should form a valuable addition to the library of every English teacher and will probably be the prized possession of many a student, for many of the poems in it are written to him in a language and about subjects that he can understand.

F. W. SWIFT

The Teaching of Algebra, The seventh year-book of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, ix + 179 pages.

This latest and in several ways the best of the seven yearbooks prepared under the guidance of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics consists of ten chapters, each written by a master teacher and careful student of modern secondary mathematics and each containing a valuable treatment which challenges the reader from start to finish.

Every teacher of junior-high-school mathematics and every administrator who has an interest in modern mathematics will be richly repaid in professional dividends for investing the time necessary to read and reread at least once this little volume.

The teacher of ninth-year algebra earnestly seeking to make the text content interesting and valuable to the student should have this book available for study and frequent reference. As teachers

know and understand more mathematics, they will teach mathematics better.

J.A.D.

Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education, by Charles C. Peters. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1930, 302 pages.

As the title suggests, this book gives many objectives and procedures in educating for citizenship. Among the thirteen chapters, some of the more important are: The Social Objectives of Education for Citizenship, The Psychological Objectives of Education for Citizenship, Contribution to Civic Education Through History and Social Science, Agencies for the Civic Education of Adults, and Education for Industrial and Social Democracy.

The book is well written and should be of value to teachers in the field of education and more especially to those interested in the education and training of boys and girls for citizenship.

JOHN N. ANDREWS

Off To Arcady, Adventures in Poetry, by MAX HERTZBERG. New York: American Book Company, 1933, 503 pages, \$1.00.

Mr. Hertzberg has here assembled a rather unusual anthology of English and American poetry. Many of the old stand-bys are to be found, but also

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a liberal sprinkling of less well-known poems. The range is enormous, so that nearly every student will find something he likes in it. A good sized section is devoted to the works of the younger poets.

At the end of the book are some rather detailed suggestions for studying the poetry. These can be used as written, or many teachers may prefer to disregard them completely. In either case, the value of the collection remains. As an introduction to poetry, few, if any, anthologies surpass it.

F.W.S.

Pupil Adjustment in the Modern School, by CECILE WHITE FLEMMING. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, xi + 94 pages.

This book, the first of the Horace Mann Studies in Education, new series, is published in order to extend the services to education rendered by the Horace Mann School of Teachers College. After setting forth the functions of the division of psychological service at this school, the classification of pupils is explained, and then two most interesting and enlightening chapters dealing with problems of adjustment for individual children and the integration of interests and activities of the school staff for constructive effort towards pupil adjustment. The dynamic records and reports used in the Horace Mann School are also presented and illustrated. While the needs of elementary-school children fur-

nish the major basis for the techniques described, the book is interesting for secondary-school teachers and administrators, for "the distinction between elementary and secondary education is rapidly wearing away." The careful study and treatment of individual pupils so competently treated by Dr. Flemming must characterize all levels of American education.

P.W.L.C.

American Literature, edited by THOMAS H. BRIGGS, MAX J. HERTZBERG, and EMMA MILLER BOLENIUS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1933, xix + 764 pages.

The editors have compiled an unusual collection of various types of American literature. Practically all types of writing are represented, from political speeches to poetry and including letters, novels, essays, short stories, documents, and drama. In addition to these, there is a fairly complete section on the background of American literature, which sketches the history of the country as it has affected literature. Then there are also samples of American folklore (some might wish this section to be longer) and of world literature, selections from thirteen different countries.

This book would be excellent simply for something the students might turn to in odd moments, for it is full of pleasant surprises, but it has the additional advantage of being almost everything needed as a basis for a course in American literature.

F.W.S.

The Journal of Educational Sociology Program for 1933

The Journal of Educational Sociology had a number of notable issues last year, such as those on the Boys' Club Study and Juvenile Delinquency. The following special numbers are planned for the coming year:

1933

SEPTEMBER *The Introductory Course in Sociology in Colleges and Universities*

The completed report of a special committee of the American Sociological Society, Cecil C. North, Chairman

OCTOBER *Educational Values*

Professor David Snedden will present, through his own contribution and those of others, the results of his most recent study

NOVEMBER *Negro Education*

A group of Negro professors, mainly from Tuskegee, will seek to indicate the special problem of the Negro, as regards education, in the process of racial adjustment

DECEMBER *Character Education*

Issue editor, Professor C. C. Peters of Pennsylvania State College

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Social Studies

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